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## Educational News and Editorial Comment

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### EDUCATIONAL PLANNING FOR THE POSTWAR PERIOD

TWO views regarding educational planning for the postwar period are frequently expressed: (1) that the school will be unchanged by the events of the war and after the war will carry on as usual; (2) that the school, to keep pace with the tremendous social changes which the war will bring, will be forced to undergo a complete transformation. Neither of these views is sound, although both contain elements of truth.

It is safe to predict that about midway between these extreme positions the postwar school will find its place in a greatly changed social order. World knowledge resulting from the fighting of a global war will be so expanded that present instructional materials will require thorough revision. World information unknown to the large majority of adults before Pearl Harbor is now common knowledge to most children in the primary grades. News of formerly unknown places,

climate, topography, resources, scientific discoveries, languages, and the customs of other peoples now flood the pages of the daily press. With the strong motive to know more about the world in which fathers, mothers, brothers, sisters, other relatives, and neighbors are engaged in warfare, the new knowledge available in the press and in the avalanche of books which the war has produced tends to make the old knowledge found in even our best textbooks rather barren pabulum to the school boys and girls of today. In the postwar period, when this new knowledge will be further multiplied, the school which attempts to carry on as in pre-war days will not long be respected.

Business, industry, and government are keenly aware of the changes which will occur when the war ends and are planning feverishly to alter past and present practices to meet the changed conditions. The school must likewise look ahead and prepare to meet its problems—not ten years late, but

ahead of schedule. This educational planning calls for the full participation of every teacher and administrative officer. Laymen and community organizations are also vitally concerned and must be willing to participate in facilitating the educational changes which the postwar period will require.

Problems which will call for educational planning are (1) the evaluation of much new material destined to find a place in the curriculum, (2) the elimination of much outmoded material from the curriculum, (3) a thorough revision of the objectives of education, (4) the improvement of methods of teaching and administration, (5) the evaluation of the program of extra-curriculum activities, and (6) the establishment of a new partnership between school and community.

It is encouraging to know that a great deal of educational planning for the postwar period is already going on. Examples of such planning have been reported in previous issues of the *School Review*. Suffice it to say here that the promise of the future may depend, to a much greater extent than any of us realize, on the kind of educational planning engaged in by the members of the teaching profession for the postwar era. The greatest hope for averting a future catastrophe of the kind in which the world is now engaged rests largely in education. We cannot afford to take a chance on any but the best planned program of education which the highest wisdom can produce. That highest wisdom can be

secured only through the co-operative planning of all the persons who believe in the power of education and who are willing to give their best effort and ability to its cause.

*Changes in objectives* The importance of planning for educational changes in the postwar

period has recently received the attention of a group of fifty-four high-school administrators in the Chicago area. These leaders attempted to pool their views with respect to the changes in emphasis which particular educational objectives should receive in the postwar era. In order to secure the administrators' views, 138 statements of objectives were submitted for evaluation. The respondents were asked to indicate whether they thought an objective ought to receive greater emphasis after the war than it had received in the past, less emphasis, or about the same emphasis. If the objective was considered entirely inappropriate in the postwar period, the administrators also indicated that opinion.

The objectives which were used in the inquiry were derived from an analysis of the social problems that have been affected by the war. For example, few persons would deny that the war has brought forcefully to their attention in a new light the problems of internationalism and nationalism. Similarly the war has crystallized concern for race relations, for the physical fitness of the individual, for community planning, and so on.

TABLE 1

PERCENTAGE OF SUPERINTENDENTS APPROVING GREATER POSTWAR EMPHASIS  
ON REPRESENTATIVE OBJECTIVES IN EACH OF 25 AREAS

Area and Objective	Percent- age Ap- proving Greater Em- phasis	Area and Objective	Percent- age Ap- proving Greater Em- phasis
Air Transportation.—Develop in pupils an understanding of the problem of air transport control (international control, national control, private and commercial control).....	98	Community Study and Improvement.—Develop skill in the use of co-operative, democratic group action to achieve progress in community reorganization.....	85
Education.—Develop insights, understandings, and appreciation with respect to the place of education in a democratic society.....	98	Family Living.—Develop ability to adjust usefully and happily to other members of the family—parents, brothers, sisters, and others.....	85
Housing.—Inform pupils regarding the seriousness of substandard housing to the nation and the importance of eliminating such housing.....	95	Health, Safety, and Nutrition.—Acquaint pupils with the significance of health and safety to the national welfare and with the issues involved in achieving a high state of health and safety throughout the nation.....	85
Recreation and Leisure.—Emphasize the growing importance of leisure time in our culture and teach pupils to use leisure time wisely for recreation, self-improvement, social service, etc.....	95	Internationalism.—Acquaint pupils with the cultural patterns of family life in other nations, with a view to developing clear understanding of the social forces operating in foreign countries..	85
Vocational Guidance.—Develop respect for the dignity of all sorts of labor, regardless of the pupil's particular vocational aptitude and choice.....	95	Pressure Groups.—Develop the ability to identify the major national pressure groups which function in our society and to understand their methods and procedures.....	85
Conservation.—Instill determination to do everything possible to conserve natural resources.....	93	Labor Unions.—Acquaint pupils with the role of labor organizations and of employers' organizations in our national economy and with issues and problems growing out of labor-management relations.....	83
Social Security.—Develop the ability to evaluate proposals presented for the solution of problems related to social, economic, and professional security..	91	Technology.—Inform pupils regarding significant developments and their applications in industry and in the production of consumers' goods (plastics, aviation, photoelectric control, dehydration of food, etc.).....	83
National Income, Taxation, Inflation.—Develop insights and understandings with respect to taxation: the services it provides, the extent of its burden on individuals of varying circumstances, its relation to the national income, sources of tax income, and their relative merits, etc.....	90	Minority Groups, Race Relations.—Develop ability to distinguish between facts, theories, assumptions, propaganda, and personal prejudice with respect to minority and subjected groups.....	81
Consumers' Problems.—Train pupils to distinguish between facts and unproved statements in advertising and other promotional programs for consumers' goods.....	87		

TABLE 1—Continued

Area and Objective	Percent- age Ap- proving Greater Em- phasis	Area and Objective	Percent- age Ap- proving Greater Em- phasis
Mobility of the Population.—Develop insights and understandings with respect to the increased mobility of people in our nation. . . . .	80	General Vocational Education.—Train pupils in generalized abilities and understandings common to all vocations or to broad vocational areas. . . . .	67
Understanding of Nation's Background and Problems.—Emphasize knowledge of the form of government and the pattern of civil liberties established by the Constitution. . . . .	78	Women in the Social Order.—Prepare boys and girls for a new role of women in society, wherein women follow careers and vocations more freely while men accept home responsibilities more generally. . . . .	31
Unemployment.—Present pertinent facts relative to unemployment and acquaint pupils with the solutions proposed for the elimination of unemployment in the nation. . . . .	78	Specific Vocational Education.—Develop pupils as skilled craftsmen in particular vocational lines. . . . .	20
Peace.—Develop an emotionalized attitude in favor of some form of international union of nations as a means of promoting world betterment and of averting future wars. . . . .	70	Isolation, Armament, Intense Patriotism.—Instill a firm resolve to isolate our nation from the perils of international complications and develop a self-sufficient, independent national economy. . . . .	0

Twenty-five broad problem areas of this kind were listed, and most of these broad areas were, in turn, analyzed into several critical issues.

Since the type of behavior appropriate in each social area varies considerably, most statements of objectives contained two elements. One element presented a social area (for example, internationalism, race relations, or conservation of natural resources), and the other presented a possible type of behavior (for example, ability to state facts, a favorable emotional response, or ability to cooperate with others). A few objectives were stated so as to present aspects of pupil behavior without reference to any specific social situation. There

were also included two objectives presenting the general issue of the emphasis to be placed directly on contemporary social problems by postwar education.

When the preparation of the list of objectives began, it was not intended that all the effects of the war on the objectives of education should be classified as social problems or general pupil abilities. It was thought that certain effects of the war on the traditional school subjects would need to be treated separately. However, separate listing of possible changes in conventional subject matter proved to be unnecessary. Each issue regarding subject matter was classified under a social area or a pupil ability. For ex-



ample, subject matter now being organized into pre-flight courses in high schools was classified under the social problem of air transportation.

Representative objectives for each of the twenty-five problem areas, with the percentage of administrators who agreed that greater emphasis should be given to these objectives in the postwar period, are presented in Table 1.

*Problems of boards of education* In order to assist local boards of education to get ready for the problems which will confront the schools in the postwar period, the Board of Regents of the State of New York authorized its Division of Research to assist the Council of School Superintendents, the New York State Association of District Superintendents, and the New York State School Boards Association in the preparation of a brochure entitled *Problems Confronting Boards of Education: A Manual for Community Participation in Educational Planning*. This manual, which is published by the New York State Education Department, outlines procedures that local school authorities can use in studying the educational needs of their communities. Based on correspondence and consultation with school boards and with professional staffs throughout New York State, the manual offers suggestions for estimating expected developments in a community and for planning education appropriate in the new situation. Helpful quota-

tions from this manual are given below.

This manual is planned to assist boards in such leadership. The board of education is invited to examine the proposals set forth and to authorize its executive officer to proceed with the various studies outlined, creating such committee or committees as will be needed. The board will from time to time examine the reports submitted, formulate the tentative plans or judgments that may be needed, and authorize the transmission of the report to the State Education Department.

The State Committee with the help of the research staff of the Department will conduct such research as will be useful to a number of boards, will serve as a clearing-house of ideas and materials, will analyze the data from the local reports, and prepare a report to be used by state educational associations and state and local educational authorities. In this way, the judgment and the experience of local school authorities anywhere in the state will be made available to all; and state educational policies can be formulated in terms of the interests and the best thinking of those who must in the last analysis administer any program devised—the local community through its board of education. . . .

This manual, utilizing the experience of groups already at work, is planned to aid the board of education to study the educational needs of its community. It helps the board determine the scope of its various local problems before concentrating on any one. Four steps are outlined below in the form of four questions. . . .

I. *What will the community (city, village, or school district) be like in 1950?*—The war has accentuated changes that were under way before. These changes will affect all of us. Step I calls for a study of population changes, economic developments, demobilization predictions, home conditions, and community resources bearing upon the education of young and old. It is based upon

estimates; but made carefully, these can be very helpful.

7. II. *For this kind of community, what kind of education is needed and for whom?*—The modern community outlined in Step I needs an educational system adapted to it. The task in Step II is to determine the broad objectives of education for the community in the light of changes anticipated in Step I, of broad national trends, and of current proposals for education. It defines the basic knowledges, skills, attitudes, and loyalties that children should have. It describes the groups for whom educational provision should be made. The result should be an educational charter for the community.

III. *In terms of the kind of education we want, what are the outstanding deficiencies in the present program?*—Step II defines the education the community wants. The community has at the moment certain educational resources—public and private, in school and out of school. Step III describes the differences between needs and resources. It shows which aspects of the desired education are not provided at all and which ones are provided inadequately. Public education may be responsible for only some of these needs, but the board should have the total picture in order to do its part well.

IV. *How can the community move from where it is to where it wants to be?*—Step III results in a list of the important educational needs for which the board is responsible. Step IV checks these recommendations, sorts them in terms of prospective action—immediate needs, emerging needs, future needs—defines the ways by which the objectives can be achieved. This outlines the broad strategy for public education in the community.

— For the guidance of local boards in carrying out this plan, suggestions are offered and discussed under eight headings: (1) "Responsibility of the Board," (2) "Leadership of the Superintendent or Supervising Principal,"

(3) "Co-operative Action and the District Superintendent," (4) "Formation of a Committee," (5) "Wide Use of Community Leaders," (6) "Encouragement of Community-wide Consideration of the Steps To Be Taken," (7) "Maintenance of a Time Schedule," and (8) "Co-operation with the State Education Department."

The manual includes work sheets for use in collecting data needed in answering the four questions previously mentioned and a report on what some boards of education and other groups are doing in planning.

*Rehabilitation of the disabled* In view of the fact that rehabilitation education is likely to present a serious challenge to the schools of the nation in the postwar era, secondary-school and college leaders will be interested in a recent bulletin on *Vocational Rehabilitation for Disabled Persons in California*, prepared by Harry D. Hicker, chief of the Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation in the California State Department of Education (*Bulletin of the State Department*, Vol. XII, No. 11). This pamphlet tells the story of what the state of California has accomplished through its program to help disabled persons attain the status of useful, self-supporting citizenship.

The work of the Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation is no longer regarded as an experiment. It has clearly demonstrated that a physical handicap is not an insurmountable

vocational handicap. An employer need no longer hesitate to provide employment to a disabled person who is certified by the Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation. Moreover, victims of accidents or disease need not feel that there is no place in the occupational world for them, for vocational adjustment of the handicapped has become an accomplished fact. The purpose of this publication is expressed by Hicker as follows:

The bulletin is intended to provide specific information concerning the vocational rehabilitation program. *Employers and personnel managers* who read it will learn of a service available to them which may aid in solving their problem of adjustment of injured employees. *Physicians and surgeons* will find in it the answer to patients' questions concerning types of work feasible following treatment if return to former work is inadvisable. *Social welfare workers* need to know of this constructive aid available to certain of their clients. *Educators* who realize the difficulties faced by their handicapped pupils will be glad to know of a specialized counseling and training program for them. *Taxpayers*, that is, the general public, are entitled to know how their tax dollars invested in rehabilitation service are being spent and what returns are received.

Thousands of California's disabled residents have already benefited from rehabilitation service since it was established in 1921. Thousands of others need similar aid. Each year adds its unfortunate quota of accident and disease victims to the rolls of the physically handicapped. But it is gratifying to report that each year also there are restored to industry well over a thousand persons. Physically impaired they still may be, but vocationally successful. That is the record of vocational rehabilitation. Thus it is serving the purpose for which it was established, namely, to fit physically handicapped persons for re-

munerative occupations and lives of usefulness.

Vocational rehabilitation has had the opportunity since the outbreak of the war to demonstrate, under vastly different conditions, its value both as a service to the handicapped and as a service for industry and for the community. The unprecedented need for industrial workers in California and the successful record of persons rehabilitated through the work of the bureau focused attention on this group as an available supply of skilled workers. According to Hicker, the bureau quickly adapted its program to meet the situation.

It sponsored a campaign of recruitment of the handicapped; it made provision for short intensive courses to prepare for jobs in the war industries; it stressed quick but judicious placements based on sound counseling; it circularized employers concerning the specialized service it had to offer. As a result, thousands of disabled but capable men and women are making their valued contribution to the war effort by serving as replacements for men called to military service. Employers are unanimous in praising them as efficient and highly desirable employees.

#### LEADS TO BETTER SECONDARY SCHOOLS

IN THE February issue of this journal, comment was made on the first of a series on "Leads to Better Secondary Schools in Michigan," being prepared by a directing committee of school men and a special staff of the State Department of Education. The first study was devoted to a *Follow-up of Secondary School Graduates*. Two

additional studies were announced at the time: Number 2, *Local Preschool Conferences*, and Number 3, *Youth Learns To Assume Responsibility*. Both of these studies are now in print and may be obtained for twenty-five cents each from the Michigan Study of the Secondary School Curriculum, Capitol Building, Lansing, Michigan.

According to Bulletin Number 2, the preschool conference is modeled after the old-time institute, which assembled the teachers of a county for a week of instruction prior to the opening of a term of school. The characteristic difference between the two is that the institute was planned and organized by the county superintendent of schools, who employed lecturers to present to the teachers the instructions which he believed would be beneficial, whereas the local preschool conference is a working session in which the teachers and administrative officers of a school unit assemble for a period of from two to five days to engage in educational planning and discussion with respect to school improvement during the ensuing term.

The committee directing the Michigan studies sponsored twelve such preschool conferences in the fall of 1940, with varying degrees of teacher planning in the organization of the conferences. Although consultants were provided by the committee if requested, speech-making was discouraged, and informal procedures directed at specific problems and plans were encouraged. Twenty-two such conferences were conducted in

1941 and again in 1942. Recent inquiry reveals that the movement has spread rapidly throughout the state.

The published study is of the handbook type and is designed to assist local school systems or units in the organization of preschool conferences. It deals specifically with preliminary planning for the conference; with launching, carrying on, and evaluating the program; and with providing for carry-over of important results. Six principles are presented as guides for the planning of preschool conferences, and fourteen procedures are suggested which have been found, through experience, to contribute to the success of such conferences.

#### PRINCIPLES

1. It should be planned co-operatively. It should be conducted in such a way as to insure the full participation of all persons involved in the educational picture (teachers, administrators, pupils, parents) in planning, carrying out, and evaluating the conference.

2. It should employ the problem approach; it should originate from the general recognition of real problems needing collective attention.

3. The plan should be flexible and clearly adapted to the interests, needs, and problems of the participants.

4. The conference should be indigenous to the community and the school, and closely allied to those agencies which can carry through on its results.

5. The conference should be evaluated in terms of the personal and professional growth of the participants, not merely in terms of the degree to which problems have been "solved."

6. The conference should utilize all available materials and resources which are related to the problems under consideration.

## PROCEDURES

1. Planning the groundwork on a basis of problems listed by teachers.
2. Using a steering or planning committee at the conference representative of, and responsible to, the entire group.
3. Planning the exact program on the spot in terms of the expressed needs of the participants.
4. Full salary status for the staff for the period of the conference.
5. Using three to five days as a reasonable minimum conference period.
6. Reducing administrative routine to a minimum and presenting it in mimeographed form.
7. Discouraging speech-making; encouraging informal discussion.
8. Providing definitely for recreation.
9. Using administrators and supervisors as resource persons, not as master-planners or chairmen.
10. Planning definitely to draw new teachers into planning and leadership roles.
11. Providing a wide variety of appropriate instructional materials for examination and use by participants.
12. Providing adequate time for groups and individuals to work on actual instructional problems and materials.
13. Planning for definite implementation of the results of the conference.
14. Planning the conference evaluation co-operatively and in terms of personal and professional growth.

The committee and research staff responsible for the study do not propose the preschool conference as a nostrum for all educational ills. They point out that, since the schools are battling for a better America against considerable odds, not the least of which are a tremendous turnover among school faculties and a decrease in available personnel, any sound device which will help a staff improve its

effectiveness should be used. Co-operatively planned as a workshop for attacking real problems of importance to the schools, the preschool conference appears to possess exceptional merit.

The study, *Youth Learns To Assume Responsibility*, reports the experiences of more than fifty classroom teachers who have been trying to help their students to function better as citizens. The purpose of the study is stated as follows:

While problems such as delinquency appear in the period of war emergency, yet they are only a part of social changes which are constantly taking place. These changes have a direct effect on the school, whether they be wars, depressions, periods of sudden expansion, or periods of comparative calm. Each change carries with it important implications for the school. It is essential that the school program be flexible to adjust to social changes, but regardless of the nature of the changes it is essential that basic values of living be maintained and extended. One of the most significant values is that the growth of boys and girls within our schools should be so guided that they are more effectively equipped for carrying out responsibilities of democratic citizenship as they encounter social changes. The problem resolves itself, therefore, into definition and application of those values which are constant and which should be emphasized in any educational program designed to help youth attain active citizenship in a democratic society. Such a program must include provision for youth to make happy emotional adjustments, understand, accept, and extend the ideals of democracy, and develop abilities essential for participation in a democratic society. It is the purpose in this pamphlet to indicate some of the responsibilities of citizenship and to cite procedures which seem effective in aiding youth to understand and to assume these responsibilities.



The study is organized in five parts: (1) "Techniques for Helping Students Develop a Deep Devotion to the Ideals of Democracy and an Understanding of Problems Which Challenge Full Realization of These Ideals," (2) "Techniques for Helping Students To Share in Determining Policies and Plans Which Affect Their School Life," (3) "Techniques for Learning To Analyze the Facts Which Are Needed for Making Decisions," (4) "Educational Procedure and Organization Which Facilitate the Assumption of Responsibilities," and (5) "Techniques for Developing Social and Civic Awareness."

Studies of the civic competence of high-school students, such as Howard E. Wilson's *Education for Citizenship* and Francis T. Spaulding's *High School and Life in the Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York*, have given a rather gloomy picture of the effectiveness of the American high school in the preparation of young people for the responsibilities of citizenship and have provided little help for teachers in the improvement of their work. The Michigan study, in contrast to the studies mentioned, is more positive in nature and more constructive in character. It narrates the experiences of a group of teachers in helping their students to assume responsibilities. The reports are organized around the six following questions.

1. How are we helping students to develop a deep and lasting devotion to the ideals of democracy?

2. In what ways are we encouraging our students to share in determining the policies and plans which affect their school lives?

3. How are we helping our students learn to analyze the facts as a basis for making decisions?

4. How are we helping our students to learn to conserve the natural and human resources of our country?

5. How are we helping our students to develop a deep respect for the personalities of other people regardless of their race, color, creed, or social status?

6. How are we helping our students to learn to contribute to the general good—to serve the community on the behalf of others even at the sacrifice of their personal wishes?

The report is concluded with the statement that much more than a bulletin is needed to make effective the training of young people for democratic citizenship. The task will probably be no more important in the days ahead than it is in the present or has been in the past. However, it is clear that, unless American schools can translate the theory of democracy into a working reality, we can scarcely expect our future citizens to practice democracy effectively or expect the peoples of foreign countries to accept democracy in preference to other forms of government.

#### COMMISSION ON EDUCATIONAL FILMS

FROM the American Council on Education has come announcement of the appointment of a Commission on Motion Pictures in Education. The present members are Mark A. May, chairman; George S. Counts; Edmund E. Day; Willard E. Givens; George Johnson; and George F. Zook, ex

officio. The work of the Commission is supported by a grant from eight motion-picture production companies, made through the Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America, Incorporated. The eight contributing companies are Columbia, Loew's Incorporated (M.G.M.), Paramount, R.K.O., Twentieth-Century Fox, United Artists, Universal, and Warner Brothers. The grant covers a five-year period. The announcement has the following to say with regard to the work of the new commission:

The Commission will study the needs of schools and colleges for motion-picture material and will plan for the production of new films for courses of study in which new pictures are needed. Special attention will be given to the planning of series of films for educational activities connected with post-war reconstruction. The Commission invites the co-operation of all interested educators and educational groups. Suggestions concerning needed productions for educational purposes will be welcomed. The Commission is particularly interested in receiving curriculum materials that can be used as the basis for films. As fast as these materials can be put into shape for filming and approved by competent educational consultants, they will be distributed to all interested producers. For the time being, all inquiries should be addressed to the chairman, Mark A. May, 28 Hillhouse Avenue, New Haven, Connecticut.

LABORATORY FOR THE STUDY OF  
SOCIAL CHANGE AND EDUCATIONAL POLICY

A LABORATORY for the Study of Social Change and Educational Policy has been established at the University of Chicago. The major purpose of the laboratory will be to

assist key individuals in the field of education to explore the changes that are occurring in our society and to appraise their meaning for educational and social policy. The laboratory affords opportunity for mature persons to address themselves to the task, under guidance, of identifying and arriving at fundamental understandings of the major problems in American life in their relation to educational policy and practice. Workers in the field of education will be afforded such guidance as the resources of the University make possible in bringing into focus on their special problems the findings of research in the social sciences as well as the experience of their co-workers in the field. The work of the laboratory will be carried forward by means of special lectures, group discussion, conferences, and the study of pertinent literature in the area being investigated. Credit for graduate study will be given for work completed in the laboratory.

During the summer quarter of 1944 a program will be offered for administrative officers in public and private schools, which will be devoted to a consideration of major problems in American life in relation to the post-war period. The program will cover a three-week period, from July 17 to August 4. The Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools will constitute the work of the first week. Persons interested in the work of this laboratory should communicate with Professor Newton Edwards, Department of Education, University of Chicago.

CONFERENCE FOR ADMINISTRATIVE  
OFFICERS OF PUBLIC AND  
PRIVATE SCHOOLS

THE thirteenth annual Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools will be held during the week of July 17-21, 1944. The theme of the conference is "Significant Aspects of American Life and Postwar Education." Lectures by members of the Department of Education and visiting specialists will be given in the forenoon, and round-table conferences for superintendents, secondary-school principals, and elementary-school principals will be conducted in the afternoon. The conference is open, without fee, to students registered in the summer quarter and to administrators of public and private schools. If desired, credit for one-half course may be obtained by payment of the regular tuition fee of \$22, the completion of a list of supplementary readings, and the passing of a comprehensive examination based on the lectures, round-table conferences, and readings.

The conference is made an integral part of the newly established Laboratory for the Study of Social Change and Educational Policy, which is described in the preceding item. Persons attending the conference will have an opportunity to participate in the program of the laboratory by continuing to August 4.

Complete information will be mailed to those applying to Professor William C. Reavis, Department of Education, University of Chicago. The conference program follows.

Monday, July 17

POSTWAR EDUCATION AND THE IMPROVE-  
MENT OF AMERICAN LIFE

"The Responsibility of the School for the Improvement of American Life," Ralph W. Tyler, Professor and Chairman of the Department of Education, University Examiner, University of Chicago

"Improving American Life through Health and Physical Education," John L. Bracken, Superintendent of Schools, Clayton, Missouri

"Improving American Life through the Re-education of the Adult Population," Ralph A. Beals, Professor of Library Science and Director of the University Libraries, University of Chicago

Tuesday, July 18

TRAINING FOR DEMOCRATIC LIVING  
IN THE POSTWAR PERIOD

"Developing a Curriculum for a Democratic Social Order," Virgil E. Herrick, Associate Professor of Education, University of Chicago

"Learning the Processes of Democratic Living," Paul R. Pierce, Principal, Wells High School, Chicago, Illinois

"Problems of American Citizens in the Postwar World," Herold C. Hunt, Superintendent of Schools, Kansas City, Missouri

Wednesday, July 19

EQUALITY OF EDUCATIONAL OPPOR-  
TUNITIES FOR EVERYONE

"Inequalities in American Life: A Challenge to Democracy," Newton Edwards, Professor of Education, University of Chicago

"The Role of Education in Maintaining a Democratic Society," William E. Drake, Associate Professor of Education, University of Missouri

"A Program of Democratic Education for the Postwar Period," Floyd W. Reeves, Professor of Administration, Director of

the Rural Education Project, University of Chicago

Thursday, July 20

THE CHANGING ECONOMY AND THE  
RELATION OF GOVERNMENT TO  
THE ECONOMIC ORDER

"The Impact of Technology on American Life," William F. Ogburn, Sewell L. Avery Distinguished Service Professor and Chairman of the Department of Sociology, University of Chicago

"Free Enterprise versus an Administered Economy," Jerome G. Kerwin, Professor of Political Science, University of Chicago

"The Responsibility of the School for Interpreting Our Changing Economy," Nelson B. Henry, Associate Professor of Education, University of Chicago

Friday, July 21

THE EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS OF A  
CHANGING POPULATION

"The Growth and Change in Age Structure of the Population," Herman G. Richey, Associate Professor and Secretary of the Department of Education; Librarian, Education Library, University of Chicago

"The Influence of a Changing Population on Educational Programs in Urban Communities," William C. Reavis, Professor of Education, University of Chicago

"Population Change: The Social and Economic Basis of a National Policy for Education," Newton Edwards, Professor of Education, University of Chicago

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO  
SUMMER WORKSHOPS

**D**URING the summer quarter of 1944 the University of Chicago will maintain an integrated workshop designed to provide an opportunity for members of elementary, secondary, and college teaching staffs to work on problems that have arisen

in their professional experience. This workshop will be operated for a six-week term from June 19 to July 29. One section of this workshop, the section on human development, will continue for an additional three weeks, until August 19. A Workshop in General Education for college faculty members, to be conducted from July 31 to August 31, and a Workshop on Rural Education, running from August 21 to September 9, are additional features of the summer workshop program. From August 21 to 25 the Workshop on Rural Education will be co-ordinated with the Conference on Education in Rural Communities, which is to be held at the University of Chicago during the period designated.

Since these workshops are an integral part of the University's summer program, students may also enrol for courses. In each of the workshops, opportunities will be provided for individual and group work, under the guidance of the staff, in developing new courses, preparing instructional materials, revising the curriculum, planning programs of guidance, or developing techniques of evaluation. The library and laboratory facilities of the University will be available for use in connection with any projects undertaken by students enrolled in the workshops. Further information may be obtained by writing to James B. Enochs, executive secretary of the workshops, Department of Education, University of Chicago.

WILLIAM C. REAVIS

## WHO'S WHO FOR MAY

*Authors of news notes and articles* The news notes in this issue have been prepared by WILLIAM C.

REAVIS, professor of education at the University of Chicago. LEONARD V. KOOS, professor of secondary education at the University of Chicago, in the third of a series of three articles on the junior college, presents data which identify the factors contributing to the democratization of that institution. ROY C. BRYAN, principal of Western State High School, a Unit of Western Michigan College of Education, Kalamazoo, Michigan, compares the results obtained on two instruments designed for the purpose of obtaining pupils' reactions to their teachers. SETH PHELPS, teacher in the Laboratory Schools at the University of Chicago, reports a study which was undertaken to determine how successfully a group of urban high-school boys who worked on farms in the summer adjusted to this work experience and how accurately their teachers were able to predict their success. CHARLES I. GLICKSBERG, teacher of English at South Side High School, Newark, New Jersey, discusses the need of planning now for postwar reconstruction and sets forth some objectives for postwar

education. RALPH ADAMS BROWN, on leave from the school system of Had-don Heights, New Jersey, to serve in the United States Coast Guard Reserve, and KENNETH C. COULTER, supervising principal of the public schools of Glen Rock, New Jersey, suggest that the schools have an important part to play in the development and maintenance of resourcefulness and initiative in the American people. G. T. BUSWELL, professor of educational psychology, and MANDEL SHERMAN, professor of educational psychology, both at the University of Chicago, present a list of selected references on educational psychology.

*Reviewers of books* RONALD B. EDGERTON, teacher in the Laboratory Schools at the University of Chicago. GUY A. LACKEY, associate professor of education at Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stillwater, Oklahoma. NELSON B. HENRY, associate professor of education at the University of Chicago. ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST, professor of education and secretary of the Committee on Human Development at the University of Chicago.

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## HOW TO DEMOCRATIZE THE JUNIOR-COLLEGE LEVEL<sup>1</sup>

LEONARD V. KOOS  
University of Chicago

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### THE WHY AND HOW OF THE INQUIRY

ONE of the most common beliefs among friends of the junior college is that this new unit in our school system democratizes, or popularizes, this level of education. Considerable evidence is at hand to support the belief. However, assurance on the point of democratization has been merely general and has not been sufficiently specific in several essential directions.

*The particularization of understanding now needed.*—A breakdown and further refinement of problems is now called for. In particular, while it is known that the public junior college increases the proportions of youth in attendance at the level represented, we know too little about (1) the comparative degrees of democratization with and without junior colleges, (2) the influence on democratization of the practice of charging tuition, and (3) the influence on democratization of the organizational pattern of the

school system which includes the junior college. Also, in each of these three directions, for the light it will throw on desirable American policy, we need to know (4) in what degree junior-college education is democratized for youth from the various socio-economic levels of our society.

*Procedures.*—The purpose of the investigation reported here is to contribute to knowledge along these essential lines. The procedures used are appropriate for the purpose in that they involve, in the main, a follow-up study of high-school graduates of ascertained socio-economic status in school systems (1) without junior colleges and (2) with junior colleges operating as (a) tuition-charging and (b) tuition-free institutions in the three main patterns of organization, namely, two-year separate units, associations (junior colleges housed with high schools), and four-year junior colleges (in 6-4-4 systems). The chief measures used are the proportions of all graduates, of graduates of higher socio-economic status, and of those of lower socio-economic status who continued education at the college level in these different situations.

The number of high schools represented in the main investigation is sixty-one. The number of systems

<sup>1</sup> This is the third of three articles reporting data from an extensive investigation of the public junior colleges in the country which are being published in the *School Review*. The first article, "Junior-College Administrators and Their Scope of Function," appeared in the March number; the second, "Opinions of Administrators on Organizing the Junior College," in the April issue.

represented is four less, because four of them contain two high schools. The schools are located in twelve states of the Midwest, the South, and the Far West. The high schools in systems without junior colleges were chosen because they were in the same regions as those with junior colleges and because they appeared to be large enough to warrant establishment of junior colleges. Those in systems with junior colleges were selected to represent both (1) tuition-charging and (2) tuition-free situations with different organizational patterns. Beyond this, the choice was determined by the known competence of the school heads to co-operate in such an investigation. In about four-fifths of the situations, arrangements for co-operation were made at the time of visits to the schools.

The total number of high-school graduates included in the follow-up was almost twelve thousand—11,932, to be exact. Of this number, 2,528 were graduates of high schools in systems without junior colleges, 3,156 were graduates of high schools in systems with tuition-charging junior colleges, and 6,248 were graduates of high schools in systems with tuition-free units. These numbers afford a base large enough to warrant the conclusions drawn, especially in view of the plan followed to safeguard representativeness. In all but a small proportion of schools a full count of graduates was included. In the few remaining schools an acceptable method of generous sampling was followed.

Details of gathering the evidence in the inquiry are readily explicable. Two major steps were involved. First, all pupils in Grade XII in the schools represented (Grade XI in high schools in Texas, where systems are generally on the eleven-year basis) during the second semester of the school year 1940-41 filled out a form asking for information making possible identification of the socio-economic status of pupils as indicated by parental occupation. The second step was taken in October, when there was sent to each co-operating principal a form containing an alphabetical list of all pupils for whom the information on parental occupation had been received. This form provided space for indicating, for each pupil, whether or not he had been graduated from high school, whether or not he was continuing his education, and the name of the institution he had entered. It speaks for the competence of the school authorities and their interest in the project that, of sixty-three high schools originally invited to co-operate, all but two subsequently completed both steps.

The final step in deriving the measures, chiefly relied on in this inquiry, was that of computing for each of the fifty-seven high-school situations the percentages of graduates who continued into the collegiate level. Three measures are used throughout the comparison. The first is the percentage of all graduates so continuing, irrespective of socio-economic status. The second and the third measures

are, respectively, the percentages of the higher socio-economic groups and of the lower socio-economic groups so continuing.

*Socio-economic grouping used.*—The classification of occupations of pupils' fathers, regarded as indicative of socio-economic status, which was followed in this investigation is that developed by Counts.<sup>1</sup> This classification is an adaptation of the occupational grouping of the federal Census. It possesses the advantage for this inquiry that it has been frequently applied in investigations at high-school and college levels. The present writer and others have applied it at the junior-college level. In consequence, its use here makes possible certain supplementary comparisons helpful in arriving at assured conclusions. To refresh the reader's memory, Counts's classifications are reproduced here:

1. Proprietors
2. Professional service
3. Managerial service
4. Commercial service
5. Clerical service
6. Agricultural service
7. Artisan-proprietors
8. Building and related trades
9. Machine and related trades
10. Printing trades
11. Miscellaneous trades in manufacturing and mechanical industries
12. Transportation service
13. Public service
14. Personal service

<sup>1</sup> George Sylvester Counts, *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education*, pp. 22-23. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 19. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1922.

15. Miners, lumber-workers, and fishermen

16. Common labor

17. Occupation unknown

Previous applications of this socio-economic classification have pointed to the feasibility of focusing attention on the higher and the lower groups in differentiating institutions with respect to their service in democratization. Specifically, the larger grouping found advantageous for this purpose includes in one "higher group" the first three classes (proprietors, professional service, and managerial service), and in another large "lower group," Classifications 8-16, inclusive.

#### INFLUENCE OF THE PRESENCE OF A JUNIOR COLLEGE

*Conspicuous contrasts in medians and distributions.*—Examination of Table 1, presenting a comparison of twelve high-school situations without junior colleges and forty-five with local public junior colleges, yields striking contrasts. These conspicuous contrasts emerge in all three pairs of medians: (1) for all high-school graduates, (2) for higher socio-economic groups, and (3) for lower socio-economic groups. The median percentage continuing into the collegiate level for all graduates in systems with junior colleges is almost two and a half times that for systems without junior colleges; for the higher socio-economic groups it is about one and a half times as large; and for the lower socio-economic groups the ratio rises to over three and a half. It will not

escape the notice of the careful reader that in both types of situations the median percentages for the higher socio-economic groups are much higher than for the lower socio-economic

The distributions in the different columns also afford conspicuous contrasts, the percentages for situations without junior colleges being much more closely clustered and more large-

TABLE 1  
DISTRIBUTION, ACCORDING TO PERCENTAGES OF 1941 GRADUATES ENTERING COLLEGE, OF HIGH SCHOOLS IN SYSTEMS WITHOUT AND WITH LOCAL PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGES

PER CENT	ALL HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES		GRADUATES IN HIGHER SOCIO-ECONOMIC GROUPS		GRADUATES IN LOWER SOCIO-ECONOMIC GROUPS	
	Without Junior Colleges (12)*	With Junior Colleges (45)	Without Junior Colleges (12)	With Junior Colleges (45)	Without Junior Colleges (12)	With Junior Colleges (44)†
100.0 . . . . .				1		
95.0-99.9 . . . . .						
90.0-94.9 . . . . .						
85.0-89.9 . . . . .				1		1
80.0-84.9 . . . . .				1		
75.0-79.9 . . . . .		1		5		
70.0-74.9 . . . . .				7		
65.0-69.9 . . . . .		2		6		
60.0-64.9 . . . . .		5	1	3		6
55.0-59.9 . . . . .		8		3		4
50.0-54.9 . . . . .	1	5		7		5
45.0-49.9 . . . . .		4	2	6		2
40.0-44.9 . . . . .		4	2	2		4
35.0-39.9 . . . . .	1	5	3	2		4
30.0-34.9 . . . . .		4	3	1	1	3
25.0-29.9 . . . . .	1	4				1
20.0-24.9 . . . . .	2	3	1			4
15.0-19.9 . . . . .	7				1	5
10.0-14.9 . . . . .					5	3
5.0-9.9 . . . . .					5	2
Median percentage‡	19.7	48.4	38.7	60.7	10.8	39.1

\* Number of situations represented.

† One high school had no graduates in the lower socio-economic groups.

‡ Located in original distribution of specific percentages and not computed from this distribution.

groups, although the percentage for the lower socio-economic groups in the situations with junior colleges is fully as high as that for the higher socio-economic groups in situations without junior colleges.

ly in the lower portions of the columns than are the percentages for situations with junior colleges. The range of percentages in all three columns for situations with junior colleges is remarkably wide.

*Individual situations without junior colleges.*—Seven of the twelve situations reported in Table 1 as being without junior colleges are also without other opportunities for collegiate education in the vicinity. Some indication of the accessibility of the opportunities available in the five remaining systems and a consideration of the percentages of graduates entering college are in point here.

Almost at the bottom of the distribution of percentages for all high-school graduates for systems without junior colleges is a system boasting an extension center of a state university. For this system the actual percentage of graduates entering a higher institution is 15.3. The system has two high schools, and the center, an attractive structure, is located just across the street from one of these schools. Notwithstanding this proximity, fewer than 2 per cent of the graduates of these schools enrolled in the courses of the center—a figure far from flattering to the degree of democratization achieved by this type of provision at the collegiate level. Also low in the list (19.5 per cent) is a high school less than twenty miles distant, on an excellent road with good bus service, from a state college. The percentage next larger in the distribution (19.8) is for a city with a selective college for women. Just above it in the distribution (at 21.0 per cent) is a high school in a district adjoining another district containing a small denominational college which is only a few miles distant from the

high school. In these four situations the respective percentages of graduates in the lower socio-economic groups entering college (last column of Table 1) are 8.5, 10.3, 5.5, and 13.0—all low and indicative of small or negligible influence on democratization.

The measures for the fifth high school with opportunities at the collegiate level in the vicinity are unusually high. For all graduates the percentage is 53.6, and for the lower socio-economic groups it is 30.3. These are not far from the medians for situations with local public junior colleges. The situation is as unusual as are the measures, since the city has two private colleges, and a tuition-free county junior college (which was entered by 6.8 per cent of the graduates) is nine miles distant from the high school and outside the city district. In further explanation, it should be said that the city is the state's capital, with whatever that may mean for the socio-economic status of its residents. The situation is patently exceptional.

*Socio-economic status in other institutions.*—The question of potentialities of democratization at the junior-college level in institutions other than local public junior colleges should have a more systematic consideration than the evidence just reviewed makes possible. Such a consideration is facilitated by Table 2, in which have been assembled, either from studies previously in print or from new evidence, two measures of socio-economic status, namely, the percentages of students



in the higher and the lower groups. It is desirable to keep in mind, in in-

TABLE 2  
PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS IN HIGHER AND LOWER SOCIO-ECONOMIC GROUPS IN VARIOUS TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS OR SITUATIONS

INSTITUTION OR SITUATION	PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS IN SOCIO-ECONOMIC GROUPS	
	Higher	Lower
1. Private colleges and universities* (averages).....	55.9	10.9
2. State universities* (averages).....	50.4	11.3
3. Private junior colleges† (averages).....	54.2	6.7
4. Individual private junior colleges (new evidence):		
College A (coeducational; self-help).....	38.7	14.8
College B (women only).....	79.7	3.1
College C (coeducational)....	34.0	32.8
College D (women only)....	86.2	0.4
College E (coeducational)....	58.6	17.2
5. Individual state junior colleges (new evidence):		
College X.....	21.5	16.8
College Y.....	29.5	29.5
College Z.....	17.7	26.6
6. State Junior College X:		
From local high school.....	61.5	60.7
From neighboring high school	19.5	10.3
7. State Junior College Z:		
From local high school.....	67.3	58.8
8. Local public junior colleges (medians from new evidence, 44 junior colleges).....	34.0	30.4
9. Continuing graduates of high schools without local public junior colleges (medians from Table 1).....	38.7	10.8
10. Continuing graduates of high schools with local public junior colleges (medians from Table 1).....	60.7	39.1

\* O. Edgar Reynolds, *The Social and Economic Status of College Students*, p. 16. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 272. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927.

† Leonard V. Koos, *The Junior College*, I, 138. Research Publications of the University of Minnesota, Education Series, No. 5. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota, 1924.

terpreting the percentages, that, while the classifications and groupings for

the different types of institutions are the same, the proportions are those of all or a representative sampling of students enrolled in these institutions at the time of investigation rather than the proportions derived from a follow-up of high-school graduates, which is the procedure used for the major comparisons of this article. Some of the investigations represented are older than desirable for a fully up-to-date comparison, but they are believed to be recent enough for the inferences drawn.

The percentages reported by Reynolds in 1927 for the higher socio-economic groups in the first two types of institutions, namely, private colleges and universities and state universities, are somewhat larger than the proportion of graduates from these groups in communities without local public junior colleges (see Type 9 in Table 2). Among possible explanations of the appreciable difference at this socio-economic level is the increased democratization in colleges and universities since the date of Reynolds' investigation and the further socio-economic selection that takes place *after* admission. On the other hand, the percentages in the lower socio-economic groups in these two types of institutions are significantly near the percentage of the same groups among high-school graduates in districts without local public junior colleges (see Type 9 again). Comparison of the percentages for Types 1 and 2 suggests a slightly but not notably greater degree of democratiza-

tion for state universities than for private colleges and universities.

Measures indicative of extent of democratization in private junior colleges are reported under Numbers 3 and 4 of the table. Percentages for Number 3 were taken from an earlier study by the writer and represent seven such institutions. The proportion in higher socio-economic groups was about the same as in private colleges and universities, although the proportion in the lower socio-economic groups was considerably smaller.

It seemed desirable for this type of institution to have more recent evidence illustrative of variation within it. The writer secured in 1941 the cooperation of administrators in five such institutions of which he had some personal knowledge and which he thought might disclose the full range of variation in the type. College A is a self-help institution; that is, all students are required to share in the work of maintaining it and thereby reduce the cost of attendance. The percentages of both higher and lower groups for College C are approximately the same as for local public junior colleges represented under Type 8—a fact which suggests that individual private units may at times be democratized to an extent similar to that in the average local public junior college. However, the medians of the percentages of higher groups and of lower groups for the five institutions are, respectively, 58.6 and 14.8, and the justifiable inference from these measures is that the typical degree of

democratization is not far from that in private colleges and universities.

Measures for a third type of institution, the state junior college, in various relationships, are reported under Numbers 5, 6, and 7 in Table 2. The percentages in higher socio-economic groups for the three individual institutions represented under Number 5 do not differ strikingly. The same thing is true for the lower socio-economic groups. The median percentages in higher and lower groups for the three institutions are, respectively, 21.5 and 26.6. The former percentage appears to indicate a moderately greater degree, and the latter, a moderately lesser degree of democratization than is reported for local public junior colleges under Number 8.

In appraising state junior colleges from the standpoint of degree of democratization achievable, it is important to recall the policy in establishing them, which is to serve regions, whereas the policy in establishing local public junior colleges is to serve primarily single systems or communities. The remaining measures for state junior colleges in Table 2 (Numbers 6 and 7) throw illustrative light on the acceptability of the policy associated with state units. These measures, unlike all preceding measures in this table, are percentages from a follow-up of high-school graduates identical in procedure with that used in arriving at the measures reported in Table 1. Two pairs of percentages are given for Junior College X, which is

represented also under Number 5. One of these pairs of percentages is for the follow-up of graduates of the high school in the city of location and the other pair for a high school seventeen miles away—easy commuting distance—on an excellent highway with good bus service. One pair of percentages is presented under state Junior College Z, namely, the percentages for the high school in that college's city of location. Democratization is high for the local high schools but, as instanced by the proportion in lower socio-economic groups, drops for the high school outside the city of location of state Junior College X to a proportion as low as that for high schools in districts without local public junior colleges (see Number 9). This finding is consistent with other evidence from this whole inquiry and requires little more than illustration to establish it. The implication is that regional units achieve a democratization in the community of location on a par with that in local public units but that democratization recedes sharply outside the local community.

A word may be said in answer to the query in the minds of readers who have noted the larger percentage from the lower socio-economic groups disclosed by the follow-up of graduates of high schools with local public junior colleges (Number 10) than for all students in local public junior colleges (Number 8). The difference may be owing to at least two influences: (1) the fact that local public junior colleges draw some students from out-

side the local systems and that these students, as in the state junior colleges, tend to be drawn from higher socio-economic levels and (2) the socio-economic selection that takes place after admission.

The upshot of this comparison of the degree of democratization achieved by the different types of institutions operating at the junior-college level may be put as a ranking, or grouping, from least to greatest degrees of democratization. The ranking should be prefaced by admission that the degrees of democratization vary widely from institution to institution within types. Achieving least democratization and, as a group, not far apart, are private colleges and universities, state universities, and private junior colleges. State junior colleges and local public junior colleges attain a much greater democratization of the student body than do the first three types. Comparison of these two types finds favor for the local public junior college because the policy implied in establishing state junior colleges is to have them serve regions instead of localities and because democratization drops sharply outside the community of location.

#### INFLUENCE OF TUITION

##### *Further conspicuous contrasts.—*

With democratization shown to be strikingly increased by the presence of a junior college in the community and with the local junior college emerging as the type of institution of greatest promise in democratization, attention

will next be turned to comparison of tuition-charging and tuition-free junior colleges. The group of systems with local public junior colleges, represented in Table 1, includes fifteen

the median at \$75.00. Tabular comparison is made in Table 3, and the criteria of democratization are the same as those in Table 1.

The medians at the foot of Table 3

TABLE 3

DISTRIBUTION, ACCORDING TO PERCENTAGES OF 1941 GRADUATES ENTERING COLLEGE, OF HIGH SCHOOLS IN SYSTEMS WITH TUITION-CHARGING AND TUITION-FREE JUNIOR COLLEGES

PER CENT	ALL HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES		GRADUATES IN HIGHER SOCIO-ECONOMIC GROUPS		GRADUATES IN LOWER SOCIO-ECONOMIC GROUPS	
	Tuition-charging (15)*	Tuition-free (30)	Tuition-charging (15)	Tuition-free (30)	Tuition-charging (15)	Tuition-free (20)†
100.0-99.9				1		
95.0-99.9						
90.0-94.9				1		1
85.0-89.9			1			
80.0-84.9						
75.0-79.9		1		5		
70.0-74.9			2	5		
65.0-69.9	1	1		6		
60.0-64.9	1	4	1	2	1	5
55.0-59.9		8	2	1	1	3
50.0-54.9	1	4	1	6		5
45.0-49.9		4	4	2		2
40.0-44.9	1	3	1	1		4
35.0-39.9	1	4	2		1	3
30.0-34.9	4		1			3
25.0-29.9	3	1			1	
20.0-24.9	3				3	1
15.0-19.9					3	2
10.0-14.9					3	
5.0-9.9					2	
Median percentage‡	31.8	53.5	48.9	67.5	19.7	46.7

\* Number of situations represented.

† One high school had no graduates in the lower socio-economic groups.

‡ Located in original distribution of specific percentages and not computed from this distribution.

making a tuition charge of local students and thirty that are tuition-free (except that some impose a tuition charge on nonresidents). The charge for tuition in the former group ranges from \$30.00 to \$100.00 a year, with the average standing at \$74.20 and

again reveal well-defined contrasts in each pair of comparisons. The measure for high schools in systems with tuition-free junior colleges in each pair is much larger than that for high schools in systems with tuition-charging units: the percentage for all gradu-

ates for high schools in systems with free units is 1.7 times that in the other group; for the higher socio-economic groups it is 1.4 times as large; for the lower socio-economic groups the ratio mounts to 2.4. A glance at the distributions of high schools in the pairs of columns of the table finds the divergence anticipated from the large differences in the medians. Although the distributions in each pair overlap

TABLE 4

PERCENTAGES OF HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES IN HIGHER AND LOWER SOCIO-ECONOMIC GROUPS ENTERING COLLEGE WHO ATTEND TUITION-CHARGING AND TUITION-FREE LOCAL PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGES

GROUP OF JUNIOR COLLEGES	PERCENTAGE OF GRADUATES IN SOCIO-ECONOMIC GROUPS	
	Higher	Lower
Tuition-charging.....	59.6	70.8
Tuition-free.....	79.0	82.0

to some extent, the concentrations appear at widely different levels. It is significant that, while the percentages are smaller for the lower socio-economic groups than for all graduates and for the higher groups, the *difference* between the medians and the distributions is greatest for the lower groups, indicating the prepotency of the tuition-free situation for democratization.

*Proportions entering the local unit.*—The percentages of high-school graduates entering college, reported from this inquiry, are the proportions who continued in college regardless of whether they entered a local unit or

went to college elsewhere. The proportions entering the local junior college vary somewhat from community to community, in some instances including all or practically all graduates who continue and in other instances being considerably less than all. Different factors, such as recency of establishment of the unit, attractiveness of the program, mobility of population in the community, etc., account for the varying proportions. The concern here is the possible influence of tuition-charging in relation to socio-economic status. To indicate the nature and the extent of this influence, the percentages of graduates in the higher and the lower socio-economic groups entering local public junior colleges have been computed and are reported in Table 4. The percentages are seen to be high for both socio-economic levels and for both tuition-charging and tuition-free units. However, the differential is greater for the higher than for the lower groups, and the proportion is lowest for the higher groups in tuition-charging units. The difference encourages the inference that some well-to-do prospective patrons of the local junior college decide that, if they are to pay tuition for their youth, they prefer to do so elsewhere rather than in the home town. The proportions are greater for lower socio-economic groups and more nearly equal because, if the youth involved attend anywhere, it must be at the local institution. Also, the proportions are higher for tuition-free units. This supplementary inquiry thus further sustains the conclusion



of the significance of tuition-free units in democratization.

*Further revelation of tuition influence.*—From a study made for another purpose comes further support for the belief in the far-reaching effect on democratization of a free-tuition policy. This particular study was made primarily to afford one of the bases on which to predict junior-college enrolments in communities with known high-school enrolments. About half the local public junior colleges of the country are represented in the study. The colleges were separated into two groups, those with tuition charges of fifty dollars or more a year and those with "no or low tuition." Only a few of the former group made charges of fifty dollars, as may be judged from the fact that the average charge in the group of fifty-two junior colleges was around ninety dollars. The largest single number was at one hundred dollars. Also only a few of the no- or low-tuition group were tuition-charging, as may be judged from the fact that the average tuition was between two and three dollars. In effect, the comparison is one of tuition-charging with tuition-free units. The measure computed for each junior college is the percentage which the junior-college enrolment in 1940-41, irrespective of source, was of the local high-school enrolment in that year. The high-school enrolment used as the base in computation was that in Grades IX-XII (in Texas, VIII-XI), whatever the plan of organization of lower schools.

Medians and first and third quar-

tiles of the percentages are given in Table 5. The contrast of the two sets of measures is so pronounced as to have seemed to some persons who have seen them as unbelievable but, because of the large number and proportion of junior colleges represented, must be accepted until similar evidence from a larger number of systems is made available. It may be

TABLE 5

PERCENTAGES WHICH JUNIOR-COLLEGE ENROLMENTS ARE OF HIGH-SCHOOL ENROLMENTS IN 52 SYSTEMS WITH LOCAL PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGES WITH TUITIONS OF \$50 OR MORE A YEAR AND IN 58 SYSTEMS WITH NO- OR LOW-TUITION JUNIOR COLLEGES

MEASURE	PERCENTAGE IN COLLEGES WITH—	
	Tuition of \$50 or More	No or Low Tuition
Median.....	14. 10	33. 37
First quartile.....	10. 44	24. 74
Third quartile.....	22. 31	44. 12

doubted that measures based on a full count of junior colleges of the type would change the figures materially. The median percentage in the no- or low-tuition group is almost exactly a third of the high-school enrolment, and this percentage is 2.4 times the percentage in the other group. The ratios for the quartiles are similar, although not identical.

#### INFLUENCE OF ORGANIZATION

##### *Organizational patterns represented.*

—The thirty situations with tuition-free, local public junior colleges, included in the comparison of tuition-

charging and tuition-free institutions of Table 3, were selected so as to secure representation of the three main types of organizational relationships of junior college to high school. These types are two-year separate units, two-year units housed with three-year or four-year high schools and here called "associations," and four-year units including the last two high-school and the first two college years. The numbers of these organizations represented are, respectively, 8, 14, and 8. The last number includes all the tuition-free, four-year, local public junior colleges in operation at the time of the investigation, although two additional four-year units are included with the tuition-charging group represented in the previous comparisons of this investigation. It should be explained further that, in order to keep issues clear and to secure comparable evidence in the four-year units, the follow-up study in them was of "students completing the work of Grade XII" rather than of high-school graduates.

*Comparing the three main patterns.*—The comparisons are made in the triple-column divisions of Table 6. The medians for all high-school graduates (see first triple-column division) show a slight increase in shifting from two-year separate units to associations and a somewhat greater increase in shifting from associations to four-year units. The medians for the higher socio-economic groups, greater than those for all graduates, show slight declines from the two-year

separate units, through associations, to four-year units. The trend of the medians is seen to be upward again for the lower socio-economic groups, with the differences between the two-year separate units, on the one hand, and the associations and four-year units, on the other, being larger than the differences in the first two triple columns. The smaller differences in medians in this table, as compared with the differences in Tables 1 and 3, reflect the absence of notable divergence in distributions in the columns, except for the lower socio-economic groups represented in the last three columns.

The moderate size of the differences in the medians prompted inquiry into their statistical significance. Critical ratios were computed by a procedure described by Holzinger.<sup>1</sup> Three of the larger differences between the medians within the triple-column divisions of this table are those (1) between the medians for all high-school graduates in two-year separate units and in four-year units, (2) between the medians for the lower socio-economic groups in two-year separate units and in associations, and (3) between medians for the lower socio-economic groups in two-year separate and in four-year units. The critical ratios in these three instances are, respectively, 2.1, 2.2, and 2.5. None rises quite to the point of affording full assurance of the statistical

<sup>1</sup> Karl J. Holzinger, *Statistical Methods for Students in Education*, p. 236. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1928.

significance of the differences. What militates against higher ratios is the small number of cases—a fact suggested by the ratio of 2.8 found for the differences between the medians

in the evidence does so. This consistency is shown in some increase in the medians from type to type for all high-school graduates and greater increases for the lower socio-economic

TABLE 6

DISTRIBUTION, ACCORDING TO PERCENTAGES OF 1941 GRADUATES ENTERING COLLEGE, OF HIGH SCHOOLS IN SYSTEMS WITH TUITION-FREE TWO-YEAR SEPARATE JUNIOR COLLEGES, JUNIOR COLLEGES IN ASSOCIATION WITH HIGH SCHOOLS, AND FOUR-YEAR JUNIOR COLLEGES

PER CENT	ALL HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES			GRADUATES IN HIGHER SOCIO-ECONOMIC GROUPS			GRADUATES IN LOWER SOCIO-ECONOMIC GROUPS		
	Two-Year Separate (8)*	Association (14)	Four-Year (8)	Two-Year Separate (8)	Association (14)	Four-Year (8)	Two-Year Separate (8)	Association (13)†	Four-Year (8)
100.0.....					I				
95.0-99.9.....									
90.0-94.9.....									
85.0-89.9.....				I				I	
80.0-84.9.....									
75.0-79.9.....		I		I	3	I			
70.0-74.9.....				2	2	I			
65.0-69.9.....	I			2	2	2			
60.0-64.9.....	I	I	2		I	I	2	2	I
55.0-59.9.....		5	3			I		I	2
50.0-54.9.....	2	2		2	4			2	3
45.0-49.9.....	I	2	I			2		2	
40.0-44.9.....	2	I			I		2	2	
35.0-39.9.....	I	I	2				I	2	
30.0-34.9.....							2		I
25.0-29.9.....		I							
20.0-24.9.....							I		
15.0-19.9.....								I	I
Median percentage‡.	51.0	53.3	57.7	70.7	68.6	64.0	38.7	47.8	50.7

\* Number of situations represented.

† One high school had no graduates in the lower socio-economic groups.

‡ Located in original distribution of specific percentages and not computed from this tabular distribution.

for lower socio-economic groups in two-year separate units and in the combined distributions of associations and four-year units (50.0 in the total of 21 junior colleges).

Albeit the critical ratios do not quite establish a conclusion of significant differences, consistency with

groups. Even the decreases in the medians from type to type for the higher socio-economic groups suggest an internal consistency of the evidence, since the representatives of these groups may, to a degree, be more traditional in attitude and on this account attend separate units in

larger proportions than attend units housed with high schools. More important is the fact, not shown in the columns for four-year units, that the highest percentages in all three columns are very preponderantly the oldest of these units. After all, most of these units are younger than the units of other types and have not yet had time to achieve their full effectiveness in democratization. These facts and interpretations, joined with the approach to statistical significance of differences indicated by the critical ratios, support an inference of greater democratization because of the better articulation and integration in the associations and the four-year units, with some advantage for the type of unit last named over the associations.

#### STEPS IN DEMOCRATIZATION

The major outcomes of the comparisons of the study here reported may be quite simply put. (1) The type of institution that most democratizes the junior-college level is the local public junior college. Among other types of institutions the nearest competitor is the state junior college, in which democratization appears to be as great as in local units for the city of location but recedes sharply outside the local community. In consequence, the policy of establishing state junior colleges as regional units is less promising for democratization than is the policy of increasing the distribution of local

units. (2) Democratization is much greater in tuition-free than in tuition-charging junior colleges. (3) Comparisons of the three main types of organization support a conclusion of greater democratization in associations than in two-year separate units and further increase of democratization through the vertical integration in four-year units. All these outcomes square with hypotheses logically derived.

Although establishment of tuition-free, local public junior colleges, making the most of vertical integration of high-school and college years, represents an effective combination of long strides toward democratizing this level, it should not be assumed that, when this type of organization has been instituted in any individual community, no more steps need be taken. There would remain the necessity for internal development that is implicit in, and is encouraged by, the pattern but which does not come without effort. For instance, the preferred organization must be accompanied by an attractive and significant offering, stressing terminal as well as preparatory values, and by a student personnel program emphasizing continuous guidance. General adoption of a suitable organization combined with an adequate internal program could achieve a degree of democratization far exceeding the highest measures found in this investigation.

## COMPARISON OF TWO INSTRUMENTS FOR USE IN EVALUATING PUPIL REACTIONS

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THIS article presents a nontechnical comparison of the results obtained by means of two instruments constructed for the purpose of securing pupil reactions. The fact that high-school pupils can give reliable reports on their reactions to different factors in the classroom situation has been adequately demonstrated.<sup>1</sup> However, the instruments used by investigators have generally been too elaborate to lend themselves to convenient duplication and use by classroom teachers.

The purpose of the present inquiry was to obtain answers to these questions: How do the results obtained by use of a mimeographed, one-page instrument compare with the results obtained by means of the printed, four-page instrument used in the investigations to which reference has been made?<sup>2</sup> How do the results obtained by means of impersonal ques-

tions compare with those obtained by means of personal questions? In other words, are questions pointed less directly at the teacher just as effective as those which relate directly to the teacher? The importance of the distinction indicated in this second question rests in the fact that some teachers are sensitive about asking questions that are personal. For example, some teachers show less hesitation in asking pupils how much they have learned in a course than in asking them for an opinion concerning the general teaching ability of the instructor; or, to take another example, these teachers are less sensitive about asking pupils how interesting the topics and problems studied have been than about asking them their opinion concerning the ability of the teacher to make the class lively and interesting.

The answers to the two questions should be of interest to many teachers who now make a practice of obtaining periodically the reactions of their pupils. In addition, this report should serve to introduce the uninitiated to procedures that can be used in evaluating pupil reactions.

<sup>1</sup> a) Roy C. Bryan, *Pupil Rating of Secondary School Teachers*, chap. iv. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 708. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937.

b) Roy C. Bryan and Otto Yntema, "A Manual on the Evaluation of Student Reactions in Secondary Schools," chap. v. Kalamazoo, Michigan: Western State Teachers College, 1939.



## METHOD OF PROCEDURE

Thirty-five classroom teachers in four high schools agreed to obtain the reactions of pupils in one of their classes. These teachers were instructed to have their pupils answer the questions in the second instrument one week after answering the questions in the first instrument. In accord with the instructions, half of these teachers used the one-page form and half used the four-page form first. One week later the half that had used the one-page form used the four-page form, and the half that had used the four-page form first used the one-page form.

The four-page instrument contains ten scaled questions and five questions calling for comments. Each of the first ten questions is followed by a scale of five points accompanied by definitions. To save space, the steps of the scale and definitions have been omitted<sup>1</sup> under Questions 2-10.

1. What is your opinion concerning the sympathy shown by this teacher?

— Excellent: Always kind, considerate, and friendly. Always able to see and understand the student's point of view when a question, problem, or difficulty arises.

— Good: Nearly always kind, considerate, and friendly. Nearly always able to understand the student's position and willing to help students through their difficulties.

— Average: Generally kind, considerate, and friendly, but every once in a while fails to see the student's point of view.

<sup>1</sup> This instrument is reproduced in complete form in Roy C. Bryan, "Eighty-six Teachers Try Evaluating Student Reactions to Themselves," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXVII (October, 1941), 513-26.

— Below average: Tries to be kind and helpful but is often impatient, grouchy, and sarcastic. Usually has difficulty in seeing the student's side of a question.

— Poor: Almost always harsh, grouchy, faultfinding, and inconsiderate.

2. What is your opinion concerning the discipline practiced by the members of this class?

3. What is your opinion concerning the fairness of this teacher's decisions regarding the students?

4. What is your opinion concerning the ability of this teacher to explain things clearly?

5. What is your opinion concerning the extent to which this teacher assists in making the class work interesting?

6. What is your opinion concerning the ability of this teacher to assist students in planning and organizing classroom work?

7. What is your opinion concerning the extent to which this teacher speaks in an engaging manner with a clear and distinct voice?

8. What is your opinion concerning the pride this teacher takes in his personal appearance?

9. What is your opinion concerning the value that the study of the topics and problems of this class has for you?

10. What is your opinion concerning the general (all-round) teaching ability of this teacher?

On what question did you give the lowest rating (or one of the lowest ratings)? Number \_\_\_\_\_. Please state briefly why you gave a low rating on this item. Your writing will not be recognized if you print your words or use a backhand slope.

On what question did you give the second lowest rating (or one of the lowest ratings)? Number \_\_\_\_\_. Please state briefly why you gave a low rating on this item. Print or use a backhand slope when answering.

Is this teacher in the habit of doing

something, not mentioned above, that you do not like? If so, what is it?

On what question did you give the highest rating (or one of the highest ratings)? Number \_\_\_\_\_. Please state briefly why you gave a high rating on this item.

Please name one or two things that you especially like about this teacher.

The one-page instrument is reproduced in full below.

#### REPORT ON A HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENT'S REACTIONS

Please answer the following questions honestly and frankly. Your teacher will never know how you, as an individual, answered these questions. Do not give your name. After completing your report, fold this sheet. All reports will be collected and shuffled before being given to the teacher.

How Does This Class Compare with Others You Have Had concerning:

1. How clear assignments and explanations given in this class have been?

(Underline one of the following answers.)

Poor    Below average    Average  
Good    Excellent

2. How well this course has been planned and organized?

Poor    Below average    Average  
Good    Excellent

3. How interesting the topics and problems studied in this class have been?

Poor    Below average    Average  
Good    Excellent

4. The extent to which this teacher has been friendly, considerate, and concerned over your problems and difficulties?

Poor    Below average    Average  
Good    Excellent

5. The value of the topics and problems studied in this class?

Poor    Below average    Average  
Good    Excellent

6. How much have you learned in this class?

Poor    Below average    Average  
Good    Excellent

On what question above do you have the least favorable opinion? Why?

What is there about this course that you especially like or dislike?

What is there about this teacher that you especially like or dislike?

It will be noted that the pupil's rating on each question in both scales is made by choosing one of five steps in the scale. Also it should be noted that five of the scaled questions in the one-page form are comparable to five of those in the four-page form (see Table 1) and that the questions which call for pupil comments on both forms are similar. These factors make direct comparisons possible.

The one-page form differs from the four-page form, not only in simplicity and brevity, but also with respect to the directness of references to the teacher. Eight of the ten questions in the four-page form make direct reference to the teacher. Only one question in the one-page form refers directly to the teacher. Questions relating to fairness, voice, personal appearance, and general teaching ability have been omitted entirely from the one-page form.

#### RESULTS

A report of the results falls into two parts, namely, the numerical averages obtained from the tally of ratings on the scaled questions and the summary of the comments made in response to the nonscaled questions. Even though these summaries were made for all thirty-five class groups which participated in this investigation, a report on the results of

only a few of the groups will be presented here. of the scale from top to bottom, excellent to poor. The averages reported

Table 1 presents the average ratings are those which resulted from adding

TABLE 1  
COMPARISON OF AVERAGE RATINGS OBTAINED FROM FOUR CLASS-  
ROOMS BY MEANS OF TWO EVALUATING INSTRUMENTS\*

TOPIC OF QUESTION	AVERAGE RATING			
	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D
Sympathy:				
Long form (1)†	81	96	81	97
Short form (4)	84	98	83	96
Discipline:				
Long form (2)	66	83	69	87
Fairness:				
Long form (3)	82	94	80	97
Ability to explain clearly:				
Long form (4)	79	91	84	93
Short form (1)	79	93	85	94
Interest:				
Long form (5)	75	93	88	96
Short form (3)	79	89	87	93
Planning and organizing:				
Long form (6)	75	90	80	92
Short form (2)	79	89	87	93
Voice:				
Long form (7)	85	97	81	95
Personal appearance:				
Long form (8)	96	100	81	100
Value of subject:				
Long form (9)	79	89	85	93
Short form (5)	77	87	85	96
General teaching ability:				
Long form (10)	79	93	77	94
Amount learned:				
Short form (6)	77	87	85	94

\* The number of pupils in the groups ranged from twenty to thirty.

† Numbers in parentheses indicate the question number.

ings obtained for four teachers on each of the forms. The numerical averages were obtained by assigning the values 100, 90, 80, 70, and 60 to the five steps

the ratings of all pupils in one class on each item.

In the following paragraphs are given summaries of the comments

made by the pupils concerning Teachers A and B on each of the forms.

#### SUMMARY OF COMMENTS CONCERNING TEACHER A

##### ON ONE-PAGE INSTRUMENT

###### *Favorable*

Subject should be helpful in the future . . . Is courteous and kind . . . The class is interesting . . . This teacher is friendly (3).<sup>1</sup>

###### *Unfavorable*

This teacher is unable to control pupils; therefore we don't learn much (3) . . . Too much fooling around, not enough accomplished . . . I dislike the class attitude and behavior (4) . . . I dislike the noise and confusion in this class . . . Does not use enough force on kids . . . We don't have enough interesting things to keep the class quiet . . . I don't like the way she handles the class . . . Does not know how to handle troublemakers, punishes the wrong ones . . . Her patience annoys me . . . Waits till the last minute to make assignments . . . Sometimes the course work is planned well, and at other times it is not well planned.

##### ON FOUR-PAGE INSTRUMENT

###### *Favorable*

Friendly personality (3) . . . She is always neat and clean (7) . . . Has ability to explain clearly (but no one listens) . . . Neat, kind, and sweet . . . Assignments are not too hard . . . She is easy to talk to.

###### *Unfavorable*

Does not keep the class in order (7) . . . Is not strict enough (7) . . . Members of the class are terrible and never pay any attention (5) . . . There are three or four students that get away with anything (3) . . . The class is not co-operative and is not in order all during the hour (2) . . . She can't control

students; therefore the class is uninteresting, because we don't accomplish anything . . . Everybody has a lot of fun; that's all . . . The students who want to hear can't because of the confusion of the rest . . . This class is always noisy, and you can very seldom hear the teacher or anyone else who is reciting. The students don't pay attention at any time. The teacher has to shout all the time and it is hard to understand her . . . The room is always noisy and fails to come to attention when the bell rings (2) . . . When assigning a lesson, she fails to bring out the specific things that can be done . . . She gives frequent tests without warning . . . Work is not explained well at the beginning, and you are marked low because of it.

#### SUMMARY OF COMMENTS CONCERNING TEACHER B

##### ON ONE-PAGE INSTRUMENT

###### *Favorable*

Is friendly and considerate (9) . . . Has patience (4) . . . I like her appearance and manner of teaching (5) . . . She has no pets and treats all the same (3) . . . I like the way she helps us work out our problems and difficulties . . . She is interested in each pupil and tries to help each . . . She is quiet and friendly, and her students all like her (2) . . . I like her cheerful attitude and her eagerness for her pupils to learn . . . I like her kind, never-scolding tone of voice.

###### *Unfavorable*

The value of this foreign-language course is not great (5) . . . We should have more projects for variety . . . The class work is much the same every day, very little change . . . I just can't translate, but it is not the teacher's fault.

##### ON FOUR-PAGE INSTRUMENT

###### *Favorable*

She makes the subject interesting and easy to understand (6) . . . She is neat (7) . . . She has patience (7) . . . She explains so well

<sup>1</sup> The numbers in parentheses after some of the comments indicate the number of pupils who made practically the same comment.

that all can understand (8) . . . In this class we really get down to work. The teacher explains things to the best of her ability, and a student very seldom leaves the class doubting any problem or question. When anything is explained in any other class, it is expected that eight out of ten would be able to understand it. The odds are that three out of every ten would be able to understand the problem thoroughly and completely. No matter how dumb a student shows himself to be (and there are many), she, by keeping her patience, is able to make the work understood . . . It is a wonder at all that a teacher of Latin is able to make the subject interesting. This teacher has been the exception. A good rating on this question [discipline] is equal to an excellent rating in any other class. She is one of the few teachers in this school who does not have pets . . . Friendly (4) . . . Good sense of humor (4) . . . Knows her subject (5) . . . Never sarcastic . . . I like her soft speaking voice (4) . . . This teacher does a very good job in grading and gives everyone an equal chance. This teacher is one of the most careful persons I know. Her clothing, hair, etc., are above reproach . . . Good disposition, dresses well, kind, considerate, thoughtful, fair, etc. If I had time, I could think of a thousand more things . . . In my opinion, she is almost perfect.

#### *Unfavorable*

The class work has very little variation, making it a bit boring at times (4) . . . I would welcome a little more variety . . . She does not do any programs to take away the monotony of this subject, but she has started something new and I like it . . . I doubt that the study of this subject will ever be worth much to me . . . When I face life and try to work out its problems, I don't think that this subject will help much . . . Everyone cooperates, but as in any class there always are those who are not prepared, but it is not the teacher's fault . . . Some of the students come to class and just sit . . . Once in a while our teacher has to tell someone to keep quiet, but it does not interfere with the class.

#### CONCLUSIONS

The averages presented in Table 1 for four teachers and the summary of comments made concerning two of these teachers are examples of the results obtained from the thirty-five groups. A study of the results presented, as well as those unreported for the much larger group of teachers, seems to justify the following conclusions.

1. Satisfactory results can be obtained without defining each step of the scale under each question. In other words, the results obtained from the single statement of the question on sympathy which is contained in the one-page form seem to serve the purpose just as effectively as the results obtained from the more elaborate statement of the question in which each step of the scale is defined. This conclusion is supported by the close similarity of the pairs of averages obtained from the two scales as reported in Table 1 and by the close similarity of the corresponding averages obtained for the other thirty-one teachers. The correlation is obviously very high.

One would expect pupils who have clear, detailed, and objective definitions of the steps of a scale to agree more closely than those who do not. Why is this result not found here to any marked extent? The reason may be that each question, accompanied by the five-point scale, is understood well enough without detailed definitions of each of the five steps of the



scale. Another reasonable explanation is that pupils do not take time to study the exact definition of each step of the scale when it is included. Regardless of the explanation, it should be remembered that the pupils' comments, on any point that is an issue with them, make clear what they mean. For example, Table 1 shows that the students had a poor opinion of the discipline maintained in the classroom of Teacher A, and their comments on the discipline that existed in this class leave little room for debate on why they gave a low rating on this question.

It should be remembered that the reliability of questions, as determined by reliability coefficients, varies from question to question and is dependent on such factors as the number of pupils in a class group, differences in the wording of questions, and differences in the conditions under which the reports are obtained.

2. A good picture of what the students think of the teacher and other factors in the classroom situation can be obtained without the inclusion of many direct questions concerning the teacher. As pointed out previously, the one-page instrument contained fewer direct questions concerning the teacher than did the four-page instrument. It would appear that those teachers who are sensitive about asking personal questions can get satisfactory results without asking many direct questions—perhaps even fewer than were contained in the one-page instrument used in this study. So long

as the teacher is willing to give the pupils an opportunity to comment on anything that they especially like or dislike about the class or the teacher, he will get considerable information on any item that is an issue with the pupils regardless of the scaled questions which are included or omitted from the instrument. For example, the pupils of Teacher A were asked no specific question in the one-page form concerning her ability to maintain discipline. In spite of this omission, the pupils made it abundantly clear in their comments what they thought on this point. The same would be true on any point on which the pupils have strong feeling, either favorable or unfavorable, whether or not the specific point is mentioned in the instrument.

Any teacher who hesitates to ask students what they think of his general teaching ability can get a satisfactory answer indirectly by studying the averages obtained on the other scaled questions and by studying their favorable and unfavorable comments. For example, Teacher D did not get information on this point when the one-page instrument was used. A study of the other ratings and the comments made it obvious, however, that the pupils have a very good opinion of this instructor's general teaching ability.

3. The four-page form is superior to the one-page form in eliciting comment. In the longer instrument one whole page was allowed for comment as compared to about a quarter-page in the shorter instrument. The ad-

vantage of allowing adequate space for comment is reflected in the preceding summary of the comments concerning Teachers A and B. This advantage is even more marked than is reflected here, however, because many of the statements were cut in length when summarized. The tendency for pupils to make more and longer statements on the four-page instrument was marked.

Pupils should be given every encouragement to comment because their statements go far to define what they mean by their ratings on scaled questions and point to issues not mentioned on the scaled questions. The great majority of teachers who have obtained written pupil reactions

feel that they receive more help from the comments than from the ratings on the scaled questions.<sup>1</sup>

These conclusions lead to the recommendation that teachers who desire to obtain and study the reactions of their pupils use a two-page instrument. One page provides space enough to ask an adequate number of scaled questions if the dubious procedure of defining each step of the scale is omitted. The other page of the proposed two-page instrument is needed to stimulate, and is adequate to permit, pupils to comment freely.

<sup>1</sup> Roy C. Bryan, "Reliability, Validity, and Needfulness of Written Student Reactions to Teachers," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXVII (December, 1941), 655-65.

## URBAN HIGH-SCHOOL BOYS ON THE FARM

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FOR two years groups of boys from the University High School of the University of Chicago have worked on farms in a southern Wisconsin community. The faculty of the Laboratory Schools have co-operated in efforts to make the experiences of the two summers educational for the boys.<sup>1</sup> An experiment was also conducted to determine the effectiveness with which teachers were able to judge the ability of the several boys to "make good" in an actual work situation.

Early in 1942 the decision was made to have a faculty member with a rural background live in the community and serve as a co-ordinator between the farmers and the boys. The writer has spent two summers in the rural community and has observed and studied the boys' experiences at first hand. Let it be understood that the boys, sixteen of whom participated in the summer of 1943, did not have "snap" jobs! The tempo of activities on the farms was much too accelerated to tolerate the presence of any able-bodied person who was not there with serious intent.

The boys were selected because of

their physical fitness and their expressed desire to help out in time of need. The present article will concern itself with the results of a "pilot" study which was made by the writer to determine how successfully the boys adjusted to this work experience.

What qualities characterized the work of these city school boys who spent last summer helping farmers? Did they make a worth-while contribution to their country's war effort? Did they adjust themselves well to the long hours of fatiguing work? What were their attitudes toward their work? What were their work habits? What percentage of the boys succeeded? These and countless other questions doubtless are in the minds of secondary-school administrators who have placed boys on farms.

### SECURING EVIDENCE

A rating scale on work habits and attitudes was used to gather data concerning the University High School group. Ratings were made on each boy by both farmer and teachers. The teachers rated the boys at the end of the school year, and the farmers' ratings were made at the conclusion of the summer's work. A sample of the rating scale appears below.

<sup>1</sup> Seth Phelps, "Making Farm Work an Educational Experience for City Boys," *School Review*, LI (March, 1943), 144-49.

# RATING SCALE ON WORK HABITS AND ATTITUDES<sup>1</sup>

*Ability to learn.*—Consider ease and rapidity of understanding new instructions and adapting to new situations.

1	2	3	4	5
Dull, un-adaptable	Learns and adapts slowly	Average in learning and adapting	Learns and adapts readily	Learns with exceptional ease and speed

*Initiative.*—Consider ability to go ahead with work without being told every detail and to make practical suggestions for doing work in a better way.<sup>2</sup>

*Industry.*—Consider energy and application to his work day in and day out.

*Disposition.*—Consider the natural temper of mind.

*Accuracy.*—Consider ability to work without error.

*Speed.*—Consider rate of work.

*Attitude toward work.*—Consider voluntary interest and effort.

*Co-operativeness.*—Consider ability to maintain good working relations with others.

*Neatness.*—Consider orderliness of work.

*Thoroughness.*—Consider attention given to detail in completing a task.

*Honesty.*—Consider the frankness with which he accepts responsibility for his acts.

In Figure 1 are shown the ratings given the boys by the farmers. Sixty-nine per cent of the checks were placed in the two intervals above average, 17 per cent were placed in the average interval, and only about 14 per cent were placed in the intervals below average. Except for one successful

<sup>1</sup> Adapted from Percival M. Symonds, *Diagnosing Personality and Conduct*, pp. 66-68. New York: Century Co., 1931.

<sup>2</sup> The detailed descriptions for the several steps of the rating scale are omitted after the first item.

Rating	Ability To Learn	Initiative	Industry	Disposition	Accuracy	Speed	Attitude	Co-operativeness	Neatness	Thoroughness	Honesty
5.....	XXXX		XX	XXXX	XX		XX	XX	XX	X	XXXX
4.....	XXXX	XXXX	XXXX	XXXX	XXXX	XX	XX	XXXX	XXXX	XXXX	XXXX
3 (average).....	XX	X	XX		XX	XX	XX	0	XX	XX	XX
2.....	00	00	00	0	0	0	XX		00	00	
1.....		00	0		0	0	000			0	

FIG. 1.—Scatter diagram of ratings on eleven traits given by farmers to boys who were the more successful in their summer's work (indicated by X) and to boys who were less successful (indicated by 0).

boy who received a low rating in attitude, the checks in the low intervals were given to only four boys. Half the checks given these four boys appeared in the lowest two intervals. On the basis of these ratings, therefore, it can be said that 75 per cent of

#### COMPARISON OF RATINGS OF TEACHERS AND FARMERS

For a comparison of the ratings given by teachers and farmers, it was necessary to make a composite of the several teachers' ratings on each boy. Figure 2 shows that there is a rather

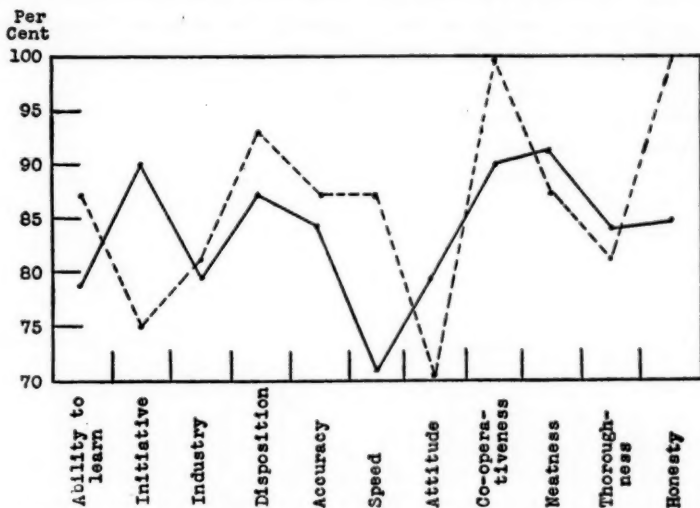


FIG. 2.—Percentage of ratings that were average or above given by teachers (unbroken line) and by farmers (broken line) to sixteen boys.

the group of sixteen boys made a successful contribution. It should be indicated that these boys were working for better-than-average farmers, whose standards of an "average" for comparison in making the ratings were probably higher than might be found among farmers in general. They expected these boys to do a good job, and they were willing to give credit to the lads who succeeded. These boys were, in the writer's opinion, rated fairly.

striking similarity in the judgments of the two groups. The farmers' ratings were higher than the teachers' judgments on seven of the eleven items. Perhaps the ratings by the farmers, who were less experienced in such procedures than were the teachers, show a slight halo effect. However, Figure 3, which presents a comparison of the ratings given by teachers and farmers for a successful boy and for a less successful boy, suggests that this influence operates in both a positive and



a negative way. The boys were quite generally liked by the farmers, but, if the boys showed a fault, the farmers were, in the judgment of the writer, more critical than were the teachers.

As already indicated, the farmers gave the two lowest ratings for only 25 per cent of the boys. The teachers, however, gave low ratings for boys from the more successful group.

control; who displays an ability to proceed with his work without being told every detail; who is energetic, industrious, and orderly; and who learns quickly and works with few errors. This portrait is drawn from the items where the majority of the checks were in the two intervals above average. In the order of the number of checks, from highest to lowest, these

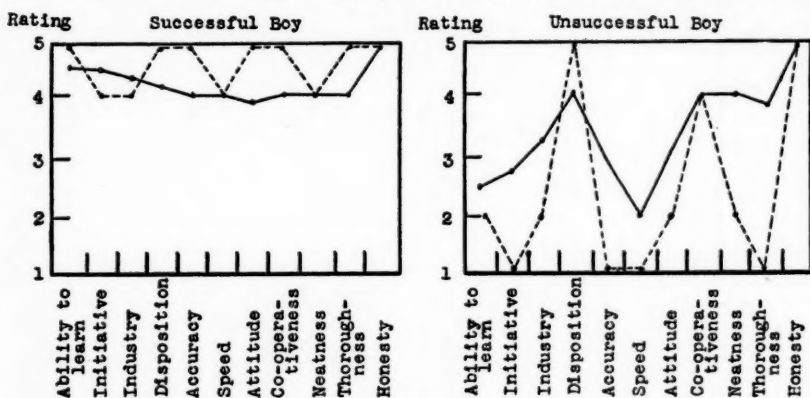


FIG. 3.—Composite ratings given by teachers (unbroken line) and ratings given by farmers (broken line) to a boy who was successful on the farm and to a boy who was less successful.

Nevertheless, the teachers' ratings had predictive value, and, properly used, they could facilitate the selection of successful candidates. Judgment should not be made from the rating of one teacher but rather from a composite of the ratings of several.

#### WORK HABITS AND ATTITUDES

*Successful boys.*—The outstanding work habits and attitudes of the more successful boy show that he is a boy who is exceptionally honest; who maintains good working relations with others; who possesses marked self-

were: co-operativeness, disposition, honesty, initiative, ability to learn, accuracy, industry, neatness, and thoroughness. It is interesting to note that some of the boys from the less successful group possessed several of these strong characteristics.

*Less successful boys.*—It is only fair to remind the reader that the boys described as "less successful" were rated as fairly successful students and that the shortcomings noted refer chiefly to their work on farms. These shortcomings indicate areas for further training by the school and

home. Until a boy can achieve a better adjustment, he cannot make his best contribution to his work. The probability should not be overlooked that some of the shortcomings may have been due, in part, to personality conflicts between employer and employee. A somewhat flexible personality is required, however, to succeed on a modern farm, where mechanization and scientific procedures require intelligent effort. In the words of one of the farmers, "The day is past when the ability to handle a shovel and holler 'whoa' is the mark of a good hired man!"

*Variance in traits.*—There are several traits in which there is extreme variance between the successful and the less successful boys. All the boys in the minority group were checked as lacking a good attitude. In the light of the definition of this trait, they lacked voluntary interest and effort. In contrast, eleven of the twelve successful boys were rated above average in attitude, only one being indicated as below average in this characteristic. There was also a wide variance between the two groups in initiative. There were other points of variance, but initiative and attitude seem the most significant. It is difficult to conceive how any boy who lacks either of these characteristics can succeed.

#### BOYS' CONTRIBUTION TO WAR PRODUCTION

These boys contributed approximately ten thousand man hours of

work in the community mentioned. Most of these boys did routine farm work. The farmers were uniformly conscientious in conditioning the boys, but after the second week the boys themselves insisted on doing any of the numerous tasks met with on farms. If the farmers wished them to, they operated tractors and worked with other farm machinery. All except one quickly became proficient in operating tractors; one boy was not allowed to continue operating machinery because the farmer felt that he lacked the good judgment acquired only through experience and that it was unsafe for him to continue working with machinery. Many of the boys quickly learned to operate milking machines and to strip the cows afterwards. The boys became very proficient in doing routine chores. They did not show much skill with a hoe or a scythe, but the farmers agreed that they themselves had not excelled with these tools when they were boys. When assigned this type of work, however, most of the boys exhibited perseverance, though freely admitting that they did not like it.

There were few complaints about the difficulty of the work, and in several cases complaints were not justified as the boys who made them were doing less tiring work than were the majority. Most of these complaints were made early in the summer. As the boys became inured to their work, they showed pride in their ability to "take it." Several of the more husky boys were envied by the local farmers,

young and old, for their ability in doing a "man's work." The boys were given physical examinations before they were assigned, and only those who were most fit physically were placed on farms. In the judgment of the school physician, the work did them no harm but rather improved their physical fitness.

The attitude of the majority toward their work was very good. The boys were highly praised by most of the farmers for their contributions. One indication of the fine relations is the fact that many of the boys have spent holidays visiting the families for whom they worked and were cordially welcomed.

During the winter of 1942-43 the boys met weekly in school to study various phases of farm life. While any measurement of the effectiveness of this training is nearly impossible to obtain, there is some evidence that it increased the boys' understanding of farmers and their appreciation of the complexities of modern farming. Some factual knowledge was obtained by the boys, as is indicated in remarks such as one farmer made to the writer: "I was surprised that the boy knew so much about farming in general. Your classes must have helped him."

#### CONCLUSIONS

Boys and girls who plan to work on farms during vacations should be given

some preparation for the work experience. Schools should attempt to determine the candidates' fitness for the work and should help them adjust to their new life and duties. Teachers' judgments should facilitate the selection of the more fit individuals. A number of the boys have told the writer that his counseling meant a great deal to them and helped them to make satisfactory adjustments. Counseling and guidance should be given wherever possible to further the successful achievement of these young people. Considerable emphasis might be placed on the training that schools are giving pupils in personal traits. Certainly more attention should be paid to the kind of an individual who is being educated.

The experience with this group of boys indicated rather clearly that some young people cannot make large contributions on farms even though they keenly desire to do so. The gap between their city life and the farm work is too great, especially if previous work experience is lacking. However, the fact that three-fourths of the boys made outstanding successes, even though none of them expects to follow agriculture as a vocation, is a tribute to this group and to thousands of others throughout the country.

## SOME CONSIDERATIONS IN POSTWAR EDUCATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION

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### NECESSITY FOR PLANNING

IN TIMES of war as in times of peace, society is compelled to plan, to prepare for the future. Modern society is technologically so complex, economically so delicately adjusted and so interdependent in function, that we cannot escape this imperative. Failure to plan, rigid adherence to a *laissez faire* policy, results in breakdown of the economic machine, cycles of depression, mass unemployment, labor unrest, international wars. Economic planning alone, however, despite what the Marxists preach, does not automatically insure a country against danger. Reforms cannot be successfully carried out unless the people as a whole comprehend the purpose of the reforms and earnestly co-operate to make them work. Democratic enlightenment and intelligent participation by the electorate in governmental projects must precede and accompany the work of reform. Hence education plays a pivotal role in any effort to rehabilitate and reconstruct the postwar world.

While the leaders of the United Nations are holding conferences and exchanging views on the problems of war and peace, it is no more than fit-

ting that educators should devote their attention to the question of postwar educational reconstruction. There are probably few educators who are completely satisfied with things as they are. Since times and conditions are constantly changing, it is natural that the demand for reform should continue. Only in "revolutionary" epochs such as ours do profound transformations take place in a relatively short time. Here, then, is an unparalleled opportunity to adjust education to the challenge of the war. Whatever radical changes are brought about by the war, one thing is certain: the need for education not only will remain but will be vastly greater than before.

### NEED FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Postwar reconstruction, it is now realized, is incomplete without educational reconstruction. That is to say, re-education must be an organic part of the total postwar reconstruction process. Without a comprehensive plan for the re-education of the people of the United Nations and the subjugated masses of Europe and the Orient, all hopes of establishing permanent peace will fail. International

co-operation cannot be achieved by legislative fiat or by merely drawing up ambitious blueprints. Co-operation is based on community of interests, mutual good will, knowledge, and understanding. Education should, therefore, dedicate itself to the task of creating international good will and promoting the world-wide understanding without which peace is no more than a verbal illusion. It is an encouraging sign that committees have already been organized for the express purpose of exploring the possibility of international co-operation in the work of educational reconstruction. Educators in this country are not blind to the need for postwar planning for the millions of men and women in the United States who must adjust themselves intellectually and vocationally to a new world once the war ends.

The discussion of such proposals while the war is still raging and casualty lists are mounting will be roundly condemned in many quarters as visionary. Even if the plans are not openly assailed as impractical, it will be urged that this surely is no time for considering them. Total war has no time and energy to spare for utopian educational schemes. When the United Nations have gained the "unconditional surrender" of the enemy, then it will be proper to resume these discussions.

Such arguments do not hold water. It is precisely during the intolerable strain and stress of war, when men are fighting for a principle, an ideal,

that we must plan our social and educational goals for the future. Since every war is fought for the purpose of securing peace, then it is our duty to outline in advance the kind of peace that we wish to obtain and perpetuate. Peace as a makeshift compromise, a thing of shreds and patches, a breathing-space for the recovery of morale and the building-up of armaments in anticipation of the next struggle—such a peace is not worth fighting for. Everywhere the conviction is gaining ground that such frightfully destructive wars must, under no conditions, be permitted to recur. The world must be united and brought under the aegis of law. If peace is to prevail, if unity is to be economically and psychologically maintained, then education must begin to work now for effecting a change in the consciousness of men. If we wait until the war is over, we may find it is too late. Now while men are laying down their lives so that the civilization we value may continue, now while both the masses and their leaders are fired with the spirit of sacrifice, must we prepare to pay the price for world unity.

Otherwise we may lose the urgency of the vision and repudiate the ideal that spurred us on. The first World War taught us how easily disenchantment settles upon a people and how quickly they revert to their old ways when the grim pressure of danger is lifted. War-weariness will fall upon the multitude—and the first victim of the frantic return to economic "normalcy" will be education, since it has



no tangible market value. The youth who fought to wrest victory from defeat may be offered up as a sacrifice a second time, this time on the altars of the god of retrenchment.

The educational pattern of the future will not be cut from whole cloth. Nothing precious in this world is ever achieved without a struggle. Even the mighty transforming impact of the war will not cause an extreme change of educational policy and practice. Whatever happens will happen slowly as the result of evolutionary growth and co-operative endeavor. The education of the future is implicit in the decisions that we make today, in the experiments and the investigations that we have the courage and the vision to conduct, in the agencies and the institutions that we help to establish, in our ability to win the peace and to organize a world order that is based on justice and international good faith rather than on a balance of power. The kind of education that we provide in the future is also dependent, in no small measure, on the knowledge and the understanding gained by the young now in school and in the armed forces; for they will inherit the leadership of our society. Hence it is important to experiment freely and purposefully, encouraging students to participate democratically in the revision of the curriculum and in the discussion of fundamental educational issues.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>2</sup> A radio program such as that entitled "What Kind of High-School Education for Leadership in the Postwar World?" given on the "People's

#### FOUNDATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION

In short, planning does not begin next year or tomorrow; it begins today. When the National Resources Planning Board, for example, submitted to President Roosevelt its report of a plan designed to guarantee a job for every able-bodied person and made constructive suggestions on how to reform our economic system so that it would work for the maximal welfare of the people, then students throughout the country should have been urged to study the plan. Such discussions would have done more to vindicate democracy in government and democracy in education than tons of "propaganda" issued by the Office of War Information, excellent on the whole though the publications of that agency have been.

The "American Beveridge plan" is of vital concern to youth since (1) they are fighting the war and making the major sacrifice and (2) it helps to make clear in their minds what kind of world they would like to live in after the war, a world they will again have to fight for if the dream is to become a reality. This is the war within the war, a war that never stops—the war against poverty, insecurity, material want. It is immensely heartening for the youth of America to know

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Platform" on March 27, 1943, points in the desired direction.

See also Edward S. Evenden, *Teacher Education in a Democracy at War*. Prepared for the Commission on Teacher Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1942.

that President Roosevelt believes we can agree on our objectives that "work, fair pay, and social security after the war is won must be firmly established for the people of the United States." Let the students freely and fully discuss such highly controversial but important issues as the following: "Should the federal government assume the responsibility of insuring jobs for all who are able and willing to work?" "Is it wise to institute a 'cradle-to-grave' program of social security?" Let the students react to statements from the report of the National Resources Planning Board which emphasize that work can be furnished to all; that furnishing work to all will make possible higher levels of income; and that, finally, if freedom from want is to be achieved, the federal government must accept the burden of leadership. Let the young know that this report includes a comprehensive educational and social program for youth:

Revision of the school curriculums to provide that all young people while in school obtain meaningful unpaid work experience in school or community service, and adequate maintenance grants to assure educational opportunity to all young people above the age of compulsory school attendance who desire and can profit by continued schooling. . . .

Assignment to a permanent agency of government of responsibility for preparing plans for special work programs for pre-adults which will lay stress on the educational aspects of the work and upon the inculcation of work habits and disciplines and familiarity with the use of tools.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> National Resources Planning Board, *Post-war Plan and Program*, pp. 76-77. *National Re-*

Employment, in fact, is the tentative foundation for the task of educational reconstruction. If the promise of democracy is to bear good fruit, the psychological shock of being deprived of a job must not be permitted to recur. Once the war is won, the supreme social task is to abolish the menace of unemployment. Man must be infused with the faith that unemployment, like war, is man-made, that he can master his social destiny. Merely supplying work does not, of course, solve the problem. The kind of work provided must guarantee minimum standards of well-being for all. These are the reforms that would constitute a challenging and constructive answer to the persistent demands for basic peace aims. These are the ideals rooted in necessity which would make the dream of peace worth fighting and dying for and which would provide education with a clear mandate for its essential work of reconstruction. If we conceive of the good life, not in abstract terms of political privileges and theoretical rights, but in terms of essential goods, services, and commodities, then democracy takes on substantial meaning. Democracy can then be measured by its ability to furnish adequate food, shelter, clothing, leisure time, educational opportunities, and social security to the people as a whole. These are the vital

*sources Development—Report for 1943*, Part I. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943.

See also National Resources Planning Board, *After Defense—What?* Washington: Government Printing Office, 1941.

gains that will inject new life into the ailing body of democracy.

Youth will be afforded an opportunity to acquire a thorough education, to explore its creative potentialities, to map out a useful and satisfying life. Scholarships for the specially talented, supervised work experiences, occupational guidance and training—these will remove the heavy taint of academic futility from the curriculum. The young will be educated in a social philosophy that stresses the duty of every citizen to render service to the community of which he is an organic part. No stone will be rejected of its maker. The principle of the brotherhood of man will taste foul in our mouths until we see to it that no man goes hungry, no man suffers want, no one is homeless or exploited or degraded. This is basic, even if it is but the beginning and not the end of social reform. Feed and clothe the body, shelter it from the elements, give it a place of rest—and the soul may still feel restless, dissatisfied. Without the minimum means of subsistence, however, a man lives like the beast, and the ideal of brotherhood is denied, desecrated. Before we can think of the inherent dignity and worth of the individual, the flowering of the personality, the response to beauty, the awakening of the mind, we must take care of man's physical and material needs. Social security should be looked on not as an ideal but as a practical necessity, an obligation that must be fulfilled. That is the imperative which we must obey.

The honeymoon of capitalism is over. Whether capitalism itself is done for is a moot question, but its relations to democracy call for revaluation. The people's revolution is under way. There is nothing ominous or subversive about this "revolution." Dictated by the inexorable logic of events, it is not the product of communistic agitation. It is dedicated to the fundamental principle of peace and security. The common man prizes liberty and his political rights, but he wants these implemented by guaranties of employment, of adequate medical care, of freedom from want, and of education for his children. He is not inclined to quibble over names. Either democracy, which he looks on as a political blessing, includes in its dispensation the satisfaction of his basic needs, or it is a fraud. What he hankers for is neither national socialism nor communism but economic security. This is the substance of his hope of building a better postwar world.

#### OBJECTIVES FOR EDUCATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION

*Change in curricular emphasis.*—Educational reconstruction means, first of all, a sharp change of emphasis in curricular motivation and content. The schools must cease to claim primary allegiance on the ground that they train the young for some gainful occupation or profession. In the future they will not hold up the ideal of education as no more than a sound and profitable economic investment. The concept of social obligation will

blend with and will correct the concept of rights, which was interpreted by some to mean the unrestricted opportunity for the ambitious to insure their own advancement. Now the schools must also train the young to acquire a sense of duty so that they will be eager and prepared to serve the community.

*Education of leaders.*—All the plans for postwar educational reconstruction thus far set forth by American thinkers stress the importance of establishing genuine equality of educational opportunity if we are to put into effect the ideal of a truly free society. Genuine equality of opportunity in the schools does not put a premium upon mediocrity. On the contrary, it paves the way for those exceptional students, the potential leaders, who can make the most valuable contributions to society. If, in the peace to come, there can be no privileged peoples, then in the education of the future there can be no privileged groups. Economic barriers should not be permitted to stand in the path of a brilliant student's career. Since we do not know enough of the incidence of high intelligence and talent to predict with any confidence where or when they will manifest themselves, it is decidedly to the interest of a nation to discover and utilize to the utmost its potentialities of manpower. If we deny gifted individuals the privilege of continuing their studies simply because their parents are economically handicapped, we are indirectly assisting to maintain an economic caste.

Advanced education for the deserving should be as free as elementary education. This course is a sane and eminently desirable investment which will bring in rich dividends.

The task of training youth for postwar leadership must begin immediately. The charge may be made that this is a disguised form of "class" differentiation. These objections are based on the exploded humanitarian fallacy that all men are created equal; they ignore basic differences in innate endowment and native ability. Actually no one works on such a false theoretical assumption. Either the schools can train the young for the role of leadership in society, or they will have to admit their failure and confine themselves to the humble task of conquering illiteracy. Some day educators will experiment courageously with schools devoted primarily to creativity in the fields of the social sciences, politics, and artistic expression. The citizens of the future will gradually come to the realization that no cost is too high for an education that prepares the young for positions of social responsibility and creative leadership.

*Education for permanent peace.*—If this leadership is to be beneficent and creative in its results, it must function in a society that is free from the danger of war. But education for pacifism, as we have discovered to our cost during the past two inglorious decades, is not enough. Psychologically and educationally, the problem is how to get people to abandon war as one of their

major social institutions. To effect this end, the co-operation of educators and scientists of all kinds is necessary. Psychologists and economists, teachers and sociologists, medical men and historians and politicians—all have important parts to play. The problem must be attacked from many quarters, and the attack must be co-ordinated. Political reform alone will not effect a psychological regeneration of the mass of people enslaved to old habits and stereotypes. The insight, judgment, and critical powers of the individual must be improved, and, to bring all this about, a new type of education must be developed. Information and enlightenment, however, are also not enough to prevent the outbreak of war. Institutions must be reformed at the same time. Hence education will not seek to propagandize.

What Harding calls the "integrative" type of education<sup>1</sup> will not crush out individual differences but will regard them as opportunities for the enrichment of human potentialities. The goal for permanent peace is the establishment of a truly non-dominative society. Domination is obstructive since it interferes with the flowering and the fulfilment of our profoundest social impulses. Communal relationships are the goal toward which we are striving—companionship, not competition; mutuality, not aggression. Force defeats its

own ends; it cannot win genuine respect, affectionate esteem. But people will not relinquish their dominative behavior so long as they feel economically insecure. Hence the importance of tying up educational with economic reconstruction. Students should ponder well the meaning of the following words written by Henry A. Wallace. The democracy of the common man, he declares, embraces not only the Bill of Rights "but also economic democracy, ethnic democracy, educational democracy, and democracy in the treatment of the sexes."<sup>2</sup>

*Specialized training.*—Since the postwar world will be increasingly controlled by the forces of science and technology, the need for specialized training will become all the more urgent. Managerial functions and promotions should be based not on a blind competitive scramble for power and prestige but on proper personal and professional qualifications. Training for such positions should be thrown open to all those who display unmistakable aptitude and ability, regardless of financial status. In this way democracy would achieve the dream of the classless society.

*International education.*—Democracy is not only a series of political and economic arrangements. It is also a way of life, and as such it must be rediscovered and be conquered anew by each generation. When the war

<sup>1</sup> Denys W. Harding, *The Impulse To Dominate*, pp. 193-210. London: George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., 1941.

<sup>2</sup> Henry A. Wallace, "Beyond the Atlantic Charter," *New Republic*, CVII (November 23, 1942), 667.



ends, the loyalties that adhere to nationalism will hinder rather than help the task of establishing permanent world peace. The curriculum will have to be reoriented in the light of radically changed postwar conditions. It will have to give an international rather than a national emphasis.

The American youth of the future will look beyond the boundaries of their native land; their horizon will embrace India, China and the rest of the Orient, Africa, Russia, the entire civilized world. Moreover, the United States will be expected to assume world leadership, to take the initiative in the work of international reconstruction. Ambassadors of good will, engineering experts, social scientists, economists, administrators, and educators will have to be sent to all parts of the world to supervise and participate in this work. Once geographical boundaries have been erased as barriers, the young will come to realize the interdependence of society, the unity of the world. We are a part of a family of nations, and our fate is linked inextricably with theirs. There is the need for developing in the young a spirit of social co-operation so that they will gladly and generously carry out their obligations. The ideal will be service, not self-seeking.

#### IN CONCLUSION

War has taught us that our collective human nature can be changed. Aside from their innate endowment and capacities, individuals are shaped decisively in thought and attitude, ways of belief, values and volitions, by the society of which they are a part. If the leading institutions of society fostered the spirit of co-operation instead of competition, mutual aid instead of conflict, social justice instead of profit-making, then in time the character of society would itself change. It is imperative that we plan now. War creates the tensions, the pressure of fear and insecurity, which lead men to give favorable consideration to changes in the social structure. Not until we prove equal to the global task before us, not until we are willing and prepared to undertake the indispensable work of planning the new world order, will humanity come of age. If this war is to have any meaning for us, we must affirm, in no uncertain terms, that what we are fighting for is a world order based on justice, not force; a future international organization which will permit all peoples to share equally in the fruits and benefits of civilization. In the period of postwar educational reconstruction that lies before us, these are the assumptions that must guide us.



## SMOTHERING PUPIL INITIATIVE

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AMONG the qualities developed and emphasized by the conditions of living in colonial and pioneer America was that of resourcefulness. That this trait has not been entirely lost is proved by the fact that America is at last on the road to victory in this greatest of all wars. Our resourcefulness has fashioned the tools of victory in an abundance and with a quality that our better prepared enemies had not thought possible.

Yet the presence of this characteristic in the make-up of twentieth-century Americans has been a surprise to thinking citizens as well as to our bewildered enemies. In the past thirty years the citizenry of our country had seemed to exhibit a growing dependence on others, a lack of initiative, a willingness to admit defeat. It took the shock of Pearl Harbor, with its near calamity, to awaken us from our national lethargy.

This lack of resourcefulness, so increasingly evident in the history of the twenties and the thirties, is both a condemnation of the educational methods in use before December 7, 1941, and a challenge to the educator of tomorrow. Our schools must encourage resourcefulness, but only the

conspicuous minority have been giving this encouragement. To teach resourcefulness and to help pupils cultivate their powers of initiative is not easy; to lead and let the pupils follow is always less difficult. Many educators have been willing to take the easier path.

In an eastern high school located in an upper-middle-class residential section, it had for years been the policy to exclude all outsiders from the school dances. The result was that many pupils, particularly the upperclassmen, who were more likely to have formed friendships with boys and girls from other towns or with out-of-school young people, shunned the school affairs. Dozens of couples who should have been enjoying themselves at desirable school functions were, instead, to be found at questionable roadhouses. This fact was of little concern to school officials; they were more interested in the fact that the absence of an out-of-school element made the chaperoning of the dances an easy task.

Over a period of years delegations of pupils went to the principal with pleas for open dances, or at least semi-open dances to which each pupil

would be allowed to bring a boy or girl from outside the school. The answer was always the same: "No! We tried this several times, years ago, and we always had undesirables coming and interfering with the enjoyment of our pupils."

The chief concern of the present writers is not that the school principal and his school board were wrong (for open dances in that same school are now much better attended by the pupils, and with no unpleasant results) but that repeated attempts by high-school pupils to display resourcefulness and to prove that they had powers of initiative and leadership were repulsed.

This country needs many thousands of school officials who, when presented with similar circumstances, will respond: "Well, young people, your request is worth considering. You have pointed out to me advantages to be gained by granting your request. I'll give you some of the objections that led to our doing-away with open dances. When you have worked out a scheme which will, in your opinion, guarantee that these objections can be overcome, let me know. On my part I'll promise you that your proposed plan will be given a fair trial. It will be up to you to make it work."

School men with such a philosophy will be encouraging and developing the habit of resourcefulness. At the present time too many administrators and teachers smother it. Why have they fallen into this near-disastrous attitude? There are various reasons.

In the first place, it seems natural for the average adult to think that his judgment is better than that of a teenage boy or girl. Probably it is, but how did it become so? Judgment, like almost anything else, grows with use. If the administrator's judgment is better than that of his pupils, it is not because he is more intelligent but because he has lived longer and has learned through experience.

When a principal or teacher snuffs out a pupil's newborn idea, he is doing something far worse than denying the pupil the right to learn through experience. He is weakening the pupil's confidence in his own judgment and is, therefore, making it less likely that the pupil will ever learn to stand on his own feet and depend on his own resources. Far better to let the pupil learn, through failure, that his idea is impractical than to smother his natural instinct to think and plan for himself.

Someone has remarked how strange it is that teachers who preach the doctrine of self-determination for pupils will not permit those same pupils to do the most trivial tasks without first securing permission from the teachers. The writers do not argue that the pupils should run the school; they are not educational anarchists. They insist only that sincere pupils who want to take part in making decisions should be permitted to do so, especially if the decisions are concerned with situations in which pupils may control the result and then share some of the responsibility for that result.

Democracy in its fullest sense—democracy as a way of life—can survive any number of errors in judgment, but it cannot survive if the people have not learned to think and to have confidence in their own ability. A people whose resourcefulness and initiative are dead will always turn to a dictator, to a man who can solve their apparently hopeless problems. A people characterized by resourcefulness and initiative will always resist a dictator.

Cautiousness has also played its part in the near betrayal of America's noblest heritage by the school men of the twentieth century. For reasons which in themselves constitute a volume, the average school man and school woman have become cautious. Even when they recognize the desirability, from the pupil's viewpoint, of letting the children solve their own problems and try out their own ideas, the educators are afraid of the reaction of the community or the school board. If the plan should happen to backfire, they would be the sufferers. Their superiors, they feel, are more interested in results than in methods; the community is not cognizant of either the teachers' problems or their position. Thus the school teachers and administrators, the guardians of a heritage developed by generations of pioneers, snuff out every reappearance of the quality which, more than any other, helped to build our nation. Yet they really need not be afraid. If they work with the pupils in the school, if they do things cooperatively, they will have the

backing of the pupils and ultimately of the community.

The lazy teacher and the armchair administrator are also responsible for the school's failure to develop resourcefulness. How much easier it is to adopt a scheme which works, to use it year after year, and simply to make sure that the pupils do what they are told to do—and thus develop wooden soldiers to be pushed over the face of the world by dictators.

Can you imagine Davy Crockett or Daniel Boone listening to a Hitler or a Mussolini? Ridiculous, isn't it? The strength of a democracy is in the people, and the strength of a people lies not in gold, nor in mechanical development, nor in weapons of battle, but in the ability of the individual to think, to initiate, and to carry through. One of the writers of this article is now in the armed services, serving as an instructor in a school set up to prepare young enlisted men for officer training. One of the first tasks is to develop initiative and resourcefulness as prerequisites of leadership. It is a sad commentary on the schools from which these boys have recently graduated that most of the young men would rather be told how to do something and when to do it than to think for themselves.

All school people everywhere should remember that democracy is learned, not inherited; should encourage pupils to think, to initiate, and to carry through; should never veto a pupil's suggestion unless its failure will be disastrous to community, school, or individual.

## SELECTED REFERENCES ON EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

G. T. BUSWELL AND MANDEL SHERMAN  
University of Chicago

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THE following bibliography covers a period from January 1, 1943, to January 1, 1944, with the exception that one reference appearing very early in 1944 and one reference from 1942 have been included.

### GENERAL AND THEORETICAL DISCUSSIONS

373. HULL, CLARK L. *Principles of Behavior*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1943. Pp. x+422.

A general treatment of behavior, written on the theoretical level for advanced students.

374. PRESSEY, SIDNEY L., and ROBINSON, FRANCIS P. *Psychology and the New Education*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944 (revised). Pp. xxvi+654.

An extensive revision of the book published under the same title in 1933. It contains much new material and has been completely reorganized.

375. STODDARD, GEORGE D. *The Meaning of Intelligence*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1943. Pp. x+504.

An excellent treatment of the problem. Deals repeatedly with implications for education.

376. YOUNG, PAUL THOMAS. *Emotion in Man and Animal*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1943. Pp. xiv+422.

A basic reference book for teachers who are concerned with the problem of motivation.

### LEARNING<sup>1</sup>

377. BILLS, A. G., under the editorship of GARDNER MURPHY. *The Psychology of Efficiency*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1943. Pp. xiv+362.

An excellent treatment of the general factors relating to efficiency in learning and in work.

378. BROWNELL, WILLIAM A., and CARPER, DORIS V. *Learning the Multiplication Combinations*. Duke University Research Studies in Education, No. 7. Durham, North Carolina: Duke University Press, 1943. Pp. xii+178.

An important piece of research from Duke University, drawing its data from the field of arithmetic but extending its implications to problems of learning in general.

379. HOWARD, FREDERICK THOMAS. *Complexity of Mental Processes in Science Testing*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 879. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943. Pp. vi+54.

A research study giving an objective analysis of factors essential to measuring the results of learning in the field of science.

### INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES<sup>2</sup>

380. HAHN, EUGENE F. *Stuttering: Significant Theories and Therapies*. Stanford

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 375 (Fernald) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1943, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

<sup>2</sup> See also Item 166 (Sanford and Others) in the list of selected references appearing in the April, 1944, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

University, California: Stanford University Press, 1943. Pp. x+178.

A general treatment of the problem, containing suggestions for treatment of cases.

381. HAMILTON, MILDRED ECKHARDT. *The Contribution of Practice Differences to Group Variability*. Archives of Psychology, No. 278. New York: Archives of Psychology, 1943. Pp. 40.

A study emphasizing the importance of differences in practice as causes of variability in performance. Based on a study of fifth-grade children.

382. PIGNATELLI, MYRTLE LUNEAU. *A Comparative Study of Mental Functioning Patterns of Problem and Non-problem Children Seven, Eight, and Nine Years of Age*. Genetic Psychology Monographs, Vol. XXVII, No. 2. Provincetown, Massachusetts: Journal Press, 1943. Pp. 69-162.

A study of 606 children for the purpose of determining the relation of general mental ability to behavior problems.

#### CHILD DEVELOPMENT<sup>1</sup>

383. BARKER, ROGER G., KOUNIN, JACOB S., and WRIGHT, HERBERT F. *Child Behavior and Development*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1943. Pp. viii+652.

A summary of material in child development, ranging from a discussion of intelligence to various personality manifestations.

384. JONES, HAROLD E., assisted by the STAFF OF THE ADOLESCENT GROWTH STUDY, INSTITUTE OF CHILD WELFARE, UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA. *Development in Adolescence*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1943. Pp. xviii+166.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 96 (Janus) in the list of selected references appearing in the March, 1944, number of the *Elementary School Journal* and Item 373 (Hull) in this list.

A discussion of the development of adolescence, based on a longitudinal study of a child.

385. MECHEM, ELIZABETH. "Affectivity and Growth in Children," *Child Development*, XIV (June, 1943), 91-115.

An investigation of affectivity in relation to various measures of growth in children. A relationship was established between overt behavior and affectivity of child reactions.

#### MENTAL GROWTH<sup>2</sup>

386. ALLAN, MARY ELIZABETH, and YOUNG, FLORENE M. "The Constancy of the Intelligence Quotient as Indicated by Retests of 130 Children," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXVII (February, 1943), 41-60.

The consistency of the intelligence quotient was studied by tests and retests of 130 children.

387. BATALLA, M. B. "The Maze Behavior of Children as an Example of Summative Learning," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXIII (December, 1943), 199-211.

The relationship between intelligence, learning, and maturity was studied by means of an experimental investigation of the ability of children to learn mazes of different types.

388. BONNEY, MERL E. "The Relative Stability of Social, Intellectual, and Academic Status in Grades II to IV, and the Inter-relationships between These Various Forms of Growth," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXIV (February, 1943), 88-102.

A study of the social, intellectual, and academic status of children. The coefficient of correlation between these factors of development was high.

<sup>2</sup> See also Item 111 (Welch and Long) in the list of selected references appearing in the March, 1944, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

389. DAVIDSON, HELEN H. *Personality and Economic Background*. Morningside Heights, New York: King's Crown Press, 1943. Pp. x+190.
- An evaluation of the effect of unusual intelligence on the development of personality traits. Suggestions regarding the treatment of highly intelligent children are also given.
390. MILNE, F. T.; CLUVER, E. H.; SUZMAN, HELEN; WILKENS-STEYN, ANNA; and JOKL, E. "Does a Physiological Correlation Exist between Basic Intelligence and Physical Efficiency of School Children?" *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXIII (September, 1943), 131-40.
- The relationship between intelligence and physical efficiency of children was studied by means of various tests. Conclusions are reached regarding the parallel and biologically independent nature of intelligence and physical efficiency.
- PERSONALITY
391. BRIDGMAN, OLGA. "Psychopathic States in Children and Adolescents," *American Journal of Mental Deficiency*, XLVII (January, 1943), 301-8.
- A discussion of the problems of personality abnormalities and psychopathic conditions in children.
392. BUSWELL, G. T. "Experimentation and Personality Development," *Elementary School Journal*, XLIII (March, 1943), 393-97.
- An evaluation of the newer theories and definitions of the study of personality problems of school children.
393. FENTON, NORMAN. *Mental Hygiene in School Practice*. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1943. Pp. xvi+456.
- An evaluation of the mental-hygiene needs of both children and teachers. There is also a discussion of methods of maintaining mental hygiene of school children.
394. LANDSDOWNE, James D. "Maintaining Juvenile Morale," *Elementary School Journal*, XLIII (October, 1942), 86-89.
- A discussion of the effect of the war on the needs and personalities of school children.
395. LEWIS, WILLIAM DRAYTON. "Some Characteristics of Very Superior Children," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXII (June, 1943), 301-9.
- A discussion of the relationship between superior intelligence and personality characteristics. The importance of the difficulties of the superior child is emphasized.
396. LURIE, LOUIS A.; LEVY, SOL; ROSENTHAL, FLORENCE M.; and LURIE, OSNA B. "Environmental Influences: The Relative Importance of Specific Exogenous Factors in Producing Behavior and Personality Disorders in Children," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, XIII (January, 1943), 150-61.
- A report of the study of four hundred problem children and the factors determining their behavioral and personality deviations.
397. MELTZER, HYMAN. "Sex Differences in Children's Attitudes to Parents," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXII (June, 1943), 311-26.
- An experimental investigation of the differences in the attitudes of children toward their parents. A significant differentiation between boys and girls was observed.
398. PINTNER, RUDOLF, and FORLANO, GEORGE. "Consistency of Response to Personality Tests at Different Age Levels," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXII (March, 1943), 77-83.
- An experimental study of the consistency of responses to personality questionnaires. The relationship between age and consistency of reaction was experimentally investigated.



# Educational Writings

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## REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

THE PURPOSES, EXTENT, AND QUALITY OF INSTRUCTION IN AMERICAN HISTORY.—The surprise attack upon our Fortress Historica about a year ago by aircraft bearing the insignia of the *New York Times* proved to be a real nuisance raid. True, most of the bombast dropped turned out to be duds, dotted with occasional incendiaries, but it provided target practice for heavy batteries of historians and educators whose ack-ack barrage in professional journals quickly forced the *Times* pilots, Nevins and Fraser, to "hit the silk."

Without labeling this opposition but acknowledging the impact of the war upon the field of history, a squadron of American historians, led by Professor Edgar B. Wesley, has now taken the offensive in what may well constitute a second front for the social studies. The report of this committee,<sup>1</sup> within its fact-packed 148 pages, actually does the eight things claimed for it in the Preface:

It describes the extent and quality of popular knowledge of American history; it weighs the functions of history and shows why the subject deserves attention; it surveys history programs in the schools and colleges and calls attention to the numerous popular agencies of historical instruction; it redefines the place of history within the social-studies field; it recommends the minimum content of American history courses at the various levels of instruction; it outlines a program for the education of the history teacher; it discusses the relation between the public and

the teacher; lastly, it makes a series of other recommendations concerning the teaching of American history in the schools and colleges [p. viii].

Using a multiple-choice test, which it compares to a "crooked stick," purporting to measure the "power of discrimination which arises from the study of American history" (p. 6), the committee examined five groups (high-school pupils, military students, social-studies teachers, selected adults, and selected persons listed in *Who's Who in America*) in search of the answer to the question: Do Americans know their own history? The committee found that Americans know a "reasonable amount" of history but that they do not know their history "as well as they might."

The quantity of history offered is, early in the report, found sufficient, and proper focus is consequently placed on improvement in the quality of instruction. A splendid chapter, the fourth, is devoted to a consideration of the outside influences which rival the school in the capacity of "unofficial 'teachers' of history" and to the possibilities of the public library as an integrating agency for these forces. In chapter v we find that "the social studies constitute a *field* and not a *subject*, a federation of subjects and not a unified discipline" (p. 56). Five common-sense recommendations are made in the direction of greater correlation of history with the other social studies, continuation of the three-cycle offering, more stress on the historical approach, awareness of international relations, and a world-history course to be required of all high-school pupils.

It is in chapter vi that the committee, dealing with recommended content for courses, becomes most specific and conse-

<sup>1</sup> *American History in Schools and Colleges*. The Report of the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges of the American Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Association, and the National Council for the Social Studies, Edgar B. Wesley, Director of the Committee. New York: Macmillan Co., 1944. Pp. xiv + 148.

quently lays itself most open to attack. Four major themes for the elementary-school, the junior high school, the senior high school, and the college levels are proposed, and minimal requirements with respect to persons, dates, and skills are listed. Writers of textbooks already available in the field may tear their hair over these suggestions, but teachers using the problem approach have probably long since ceased to be disturbed by subject-matter tinkering.

The college program is carefully examined and found wanting. The committee does not hesitate to go on record as insisting that college courses in American history, particularly the survey courses, be enlivened with new material and be taught as if their teaching were a matter of the greatest consequence. "The ablest teachers, not the dullest and most poorly paid, should be in charge of all beginning courses, and experimentation as to method and content should be continuous" (p. 92). As for the training of teachers, pertinent suggestions are made for joint social-studies and education seminars, higher standards of certification, greater stress on in-service growth, and almost complete reorientation of graduate work in the light of teacher needs.

The committee minces no words in attacking those pressure groups which would legislate the curriculum. In a final chapter it ventures to set forth no less than twenty-three recommendations regarding courses, content, teacher training, and the relation of history to society, which *in toto* constitute a good springboard for provocative discussion by assorted educational groups.

The merits of the report are many. It is frank and "spade-calling" in its approach. It admits limitations, yet it opens up many vistas. Probably no report on history better reflects the impact of educational research than does this one. For example, here is admitted what subject-matter specialists have long overlooked: "Specific facts are forgotten far sooner than principles, applications, generalizations, and relationships" (p. 2).

Moreover, the other social studies are greeted without condescension and with a spirit of "let's work this out together." The library as an integral part of social-studies teaching is given prominence as deserved as it is overdue.

As is characteristic of any short report which boldly sketches broad outlines of what should or should not be done, there are weaknesses of omission and commission in this publication. The question of content allocation deserves far greater depth of consideration than could be given to it. Many values are claimed for history, but none are proved. Do persons who have studied a great deal of history vote more intelligently than those who have not? It is pleasing, indeed, to read that the "type of thinking which is encouraged by the study of history . . . [should make one] realize the complexity of even the simplest social problems and the uselessness of superficial solutions" (p. 18). These aims are too important, however, to be accepted on faith. The recommendation for a required year course in world history is a case in point. Little guidance is offered to those who sincerely wonder what this course should contain or how it might avoid the present onus of being the catchall into which may be dumped both units and pupils not particularly happy elsewhere.

In spite of shortcomings induced by attempts to cover so much ground in so little space, this report bids fair to stimulate discussion and not a little actual change in practice. Not only does it have a message for social-studies teachers, but administrators, college professors, curriculum advisers, school-board members, parents, and faculties can gain much through consideration of the recommendations made. If only one per cent of the suggestions contained in the report result in action, this little book will have proved again the virtues inherent in adversity.

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AN INDICATION OF TRENDS IN TEACHER EDUCATION.—Whatever the qualifications of the current teacher personnel in the United States and whatever the adequacy and competency of those being selected and educated for replacements, a recent publication of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education<sup>1</sup> sketches some of the most significant directions in which teacher-education programs seem to be moving. There could hardly be a more propitious time than the present in which to plan and project improvements in this area. Enrolments in teacher-education institutions are down, and most staffs have time to do some thorough and systematic planning for the postwar period.

The announced purposes of this volume are to "reveal clearly the significance, for national well-being, of teachers and teacher education" and to "prepare the way for later volumes, dealing with various aspects of the process of teacher education, by making fully evident the general point of view that has animated the Commission's work" (p. v). The Commission poses two questions with which it undertakes to deal in this volume: "First, what is the social significance of teaching and teacher education; second, what are the qualities that should be sought for in teachers who are to guide children and young people in the United States during the generation that lies ahead?" (P. xvi.)

Part I, "The American Teacher," presents a general analysis of the teaching personnel of the United States for about 1940; indicates the various teacher-education agencies operating; and states some of the general characteristics of good teachers and good schools for democracy. Part II, "Our Country, Our People," sketches the genesis of American culture; indicates trends; states the democratic ideals and goals which have evolved; and characterizes the kinds of

citizens, teachers, and schools needed, in the light of our traditions, for achieving our goals. Part III, "Our Children, Our Schools," describes American children from the standpoint of number, ages, cultural backgrounds, individual differences, and needs, and indicates the kinds of schools required to secure a maximum development of their potentialities.

The last part, "Teachers for Our Times," deals more specifically with the tasks of teacher education. In brief, these are to recruit the most promising individuals for teaching and to give them the types of pre-service and in-service education and experiences which will produce optimum educational results in the children and the adult society. The essential qualifications needed are grouped under two general categories, which overlap somewhat between themselves and with desirable qualifications for other professional groups and for every citizen. Under general educational qualifications are listed and discussed "Respect for personality," "Community-mindedness," "Rational behavior," and "Skill in co-operation." Under the professional qualities are listed and discussed "Increasing knowledge," "Skill in mediating knowledge," "Friendliness with children," "Understanding children," "Social understanding and behavior," "Good citizenship in the school as society," "Skill in evaluation," and "Faith in the worth of teaching." It is emphasized that good teachers must be selected, educated, and placed with reference to their individual and unique qualifications for particular tasks and communities. There are suggestions for further reading.

The first three parts of the book are very general in content and discussion and, in places, somewhat repetitious. The last part does a very good job of indicating, in broad outline, the essential elements that should go into an adequate and effective teacher-education program. Although there is no content in the book that has not appeared in other places, it is a somewhat unique con-

<sup>1</sup> *Teachers for Our Times*. A Statement of Purposes by the Commission on Teacher Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944. Pp. xx+178. \$2.00.

figuration of elements and will be very useful to the general public in giving an appreciation of the character of the schools and teachers needed in a democracy; to school boards and administrators in aiding them to apply proper criteria in selection, placement, and further in-service education; to teachers in helping them to formulate programs for self-improvement and group improvement; and to all those engaged in the education of teachers in helping them to formulate more adequate, relevant, and specific objectives for teacher education. Subsequent volumes from the Commission will be awaited with great interest and expectation.

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MANUAL FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS.—

With few exceptions, the schools and school systems of American communities are operated under the direction of local school boards whose members are selected, either by popular election or by appointment, to serve for a specified period of time. Although the average adult citizen is familiar with the organization and the program of the schools of his community, the newly selected school-board member is usually uninformed regarding the responsibilities of his office and knows little about the policies and procedures underlying the administration of the schools. It is thus a common observation that, by the time the members of these boards are sufficiently informed to serve intelligently and effectively, they are often retired from service. A handy manual<sup>1</sup> has been prepared for the purpose of acquainting board members with accepted principles of school management and of defining the role of the school board itself in the control and operation of a local school system. Because there is often much confusion over the di-

vision of responsibility between the school board and the superintendent, consideration is given to the proper relationship of the board of control to the executive officer.

The information and suggestions provided by this manual are presented in the form of explicit answers to 269 questions which the author has gathered through interviews and correspondence in his long career as professor of school administration. The questions are a significant characterization of the problems with which school-board members are confronted in the discharge of their duties, particularly in the early period of service, when they are required to deal with matters concerning which they are not properly informed. The answers are characterized by the maturity of judgment which stems from a wealth of knowledge of the legal basis and the approved procedures of school administration.

The series of questions include references to the powers and duties of the school board and to its organization and methods of transacting business. Although the majority of the problems dealt with pertain to the business aspects of school administration, such as the budget, the school plant, and the non-instructional services, there are some references to the curriculum, teaching procedures and the teaching staff, and the relations of the school to the community. The distinction is drawn between actions which are the appropriate function of the board and activities of individual board members. Much emphasis is placed on the need for co-operation on the part of all members of the school organization—an objective which can be realized only when the responsibilities of each person are clearly defined and generally understood.

The book includes much valuable information, and in most instances the answers to the questions are so formulated as to guide the new school-board member toward a proper understanding of the powers and duties of his office. There are a few statements, however, which might cause trouble if too literally interpreted by a novice,

<sup>1</sup> Ward G. Reeder, *School Boards and Superintendents: A Manual on Their Powers and Duties*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1944. Pp. x+278. \$2.00.

especially if he should be inclined to institute new and rigid economies. For example, the series of questions pertaining to capacity use of school buildings are answered with emphasis on the enormous waste resulting from unused or unfilled classrooms and from scant use of special facilities. It is an easy inference from these passages—but an inference of doubtful validity—that all instructional areas should be virtually filled to capacity throughout the school day.

Superintendents will welcome this volume as a ready means of familiarizing new school-board members with the services to be performed and of providing authoritative sanction for many of his own recommendations. The author's conception of the nature of the school board's responsibilities, so clearly expounded in various connections, may well be expected to remove many of the causes of friction between superintendents and board members in their necessarily shared responsibility for the management of the community's schools.

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A NEW APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF ADOLESCENCE.—Teachers need to know about adolescence, and they also need to know about adolescents. In a nutshell, this statement presents the task of learning about adolescent development and behavior. It is not enough to learn the generalizations that describe human development during adolescence. The teacher must also know how to look at each individual boy and girl, how to learn what is important about each student, and how to deal individually with each student. The book under review<sup>1</sup> is designed to meet the need for this type of study of the individual. It is a case study of one of the 160 boys and girls who were fol-

lowed through the age period of 10-18 years by staff members of the Institute of Child Welfare of the University of California.

John Sanders, the hero of this book, is a very ordinary, solemn-faced, skinny youngster, when he first appears in the book at the age of eleven. His story is told as he graduates from elementary school into junior high school, then to senior high school, and finally into college. The drama that inheres in every human life-story comes out here as we see John gradually lose caste with his age mates because of physical inferiority and lack of social skill. With feelings of relief, we see him mature slowly and uncertainly into a young man who wins the respect of himself and his peers. Thanks partly to a flexible school program but more to the elasticity and vitality of the human spirit, John's story ends well and will encourage the teacher.

All the multiple techniques of a complex longitudinal study of adolescents give information about John—his physical growth pattern, intelligence, motor skills, social development, artistic interests, feelings about himself and the feelings of peers and teachers about him, his school achievement, and his fantasy life. The reader sees how the methods were used to study John and his classmates. More important, the reader sees how data obtained by use of a variety of different techniques can be brought together to enable a teacher to understand a particular student. The data obtained in the various panels of the California Adolescent Growth Study are being published elsewhere as reports on the total group of boys and girls. In this study these group data form the backdrop of the stage on which John Sanders plays his unique role.

This book and other case reports which may be published by the California Growth Study will be valuable to secondary-school teachers and will be profitably used in the training of prospective teachers.

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<sup>1</sup> Harold E. Jones, assisted by the Staff of the Adolescent Growth Study, Institute of Child Welfare, University of California, *Development in Adolescence: Approaches to the Study of the Individual*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1943. Pp. xviii + 166. \$2.00.



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- BOWER, WILLIAM CLAYTON. *Church and State in Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1944. Pp. vi+102. \$1.00.
- BUTTERFIELD, WILLIAM H. *How To Use Letters in College Public Relations: A Survey of Principles and Source Book of Effective Examples*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944. Pp. xiv+182. \$2.50.
- Democracy: Should It Survive?* Issued by the William J. Kerby Foundation. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1943. Pp. 160. \$2.00.
- EVEROTE, WARREN PETER. *Agricultural Science To Serve Youth: Outcomes of a Course in Experimental Science for Secondary-School Students*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 901. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943. Pp. vi+80. \$1.85.
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The Basic Science Education Series: *Animals We Know* by Bertha Morris Parker, checked for scientific accuracy by Gladys K. McCosh; *Dependent Plants* by Bertha Morris Parker, checked for scientific accuracy by Ruth M. Addoms; *Garden Indoors* by Bertha Morris Parker, checked for scientific accuracy by Ruth M. Addoms; *Machines* by Bertha Morris Parker, checked for scientific accuracy by Clifford Holley; *Plant and Animal Partnerships* by Bertha Morris Parker; *Sound* by Bertha Morris Parker, checked for scientific accuracy by Clifford Holley. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson & Co., 1944. Pp. 36 (each). \$0.32 (each).

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*Illustrated Technical Dictionary*. Containing standard technical definitions of current terms in the applied sciences, graphic and industrial arts, and mechanical trades; including air navigation, meteorology, shipbuilding, synthetics and plastics; with illustrations, technical data, and interconversion tables. Edited by Maxim Newmark. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1944. Pp. vi+352. \$5.00.

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